

PARALLELISM IN THE USE AND CONSTRUCTION OF CERTAIN GRAMMATICAL
AND LEXICAL ITEMS IN CAMBODIAN AND THAI :
A TYPOLOGICAL COMPARATIVE STUDY

by

KARNCHANA NACASKUL

A thesis submitted to the University of London
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

School of Oriental and African Studies

October 1971



ProQuest Number: 10752721

All rights reserved

INFORMATION TO ALL USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.



ProQuest 10752721

Published by ProQuest LLC (2018). Copyright of the Dissertation is held by the Author.

All rights reserved.

This work is protected against unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code
Microform Edition © ProQuest LLC.

ProQuest LLC.
789 East Eisenhower Parkway
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106 – 1346

ERRATA

<u>Page</u>	<u>Line</u>	<u>Delete</u>	<u>Insert</u>
22	22	number(s)	referenced page number
31	20	in Cambodian	in the Cambodian
41	21	differnt	different
44	18	Secion	Section
50	2	(elder)	(elder sibling)
50	9	?əŋcɔ:p	?əŋcɔ:p
52	5	Oh, Chuchok	O Chuchok
60	20	Section A.9 of Chapter VII	Section A.12 of Chapter VIII
65	13	1941	1935
71	17	, being isolatives of one type or another,	
76	18	in A.4	in Section A.4
87	1	ci:ɛ	ci:ə
87	5	phráh	phrá?
106	13	some	sour
108	11	members	numbers
108	19	westernism	Westernism
109	19	(student-ten- person)	(student--ten--person)
115	13	næk	næk
118	9	G..4.1	G.4.1
119	9	is a rather	is rather
124	f.n.	Section VIII.A.5	Section VIII.A.6
124	f.n.	Section VIII.C	Section VIII.A.10
130	17	rəbɔ:b	rəbɔ:p
132	22	house	house'
134	3	labourer	labourers
134	18	that	this
134	19	that	this
134	25	only	

<u>Page</u>	<u>Line</u>	<u>Delete</u>	<u>Insert</u>
135	11	--	
148	13	to	of
149	8,11,14	phútthəcâw	phútthəcâw
150	13,16	lɛʔɔːŋ	lɛʔɔːŋ
171	11	thoudand	thousand
174	19	(1 X 1000)	(1 x 1000)
175	2	10000	1000
175	last	succeding	succeeding
179	6	məphey	mphey
185	11	/duːŋ/	/doːŋ/
187	6	/mùŋ/	/múŋ/
187	9	/chǎːŋ/	/chǎːŋ/
188	16	krəbɔːk	krəbɔːk
190	5	/krəpǎw/	/krəpǎw/
190	8	/khrɔːɸ	/khrɔːɸ
190	15	/ʔúː/	/ʔùː/
190	16	/ruːəŋ/	/ruəŋ/
193	20	are	in Thai are
195	4	menaing	meaning
196	14	SUB CLASSES	SUB-CLASSES
205	23	6 and 8	6
207	12,13	un	sun
210	19	phaem	phʔæm
212	13	verballinkers	verbal linkers
218	16	object	objects
219	15	occor	occur
220	9	Adv	Adv + FP
221	8	pricipal	principal
226	1	chàn	chán
238	20	klɤn-tɯk	klɤn tɯk
238	20	klîn-nǎːm	klîn nǎːm
245	9	ro reach	to reach

<u>Page</u>	<u>Line</u>	<u>Delete</u>	<u>Insert</u>
245	18	thin	think
245	26	correct	correct)
246	6	food	food)
246	17	phôn	phôn
252	3		all, only
252	12	cɑ:k	cǎ:k
270	14	comp	
274	4	itselfe	itself
293	6	phɑ:t	phâ:t
301	14	do:ysɑ:n	do:ysǎ:n
305	24, 25	(the whole line)	
306	4, 5, 6,	(the whole line)	
307	5	nǎ:m	nǎ:m
320	17	fulfil	fulfill
320	26	2a	2c
328	26	toutist	tourist
341	11	marrage	marriage
352	21	awamp	swamp
354	f.n.	for	in Chapter II for
369	25	kkli:ə	khli:ə
380	7, 8	11	10
384	22, 25	hardship	hardships
386	16	kɑ:	<u>kɑ:</u>
420	23	thereis	there is
422	7	Tobert	Robert
422	16	Francois	François
422	16	in Siamois	en Siamois
422	19	Francois	François
423	11	<u>Cambodian Basic Course</u>	<u>Introduction to Cambodian</u>
423	13	Vol, one	Vol.1,
423	21	BOUDDNIQUE	BOUDDHIQUE
423	23	Phótěhananukrom	photěhananukrom

<u>Page</u>	<u>Line</u>	<u>Delete</u>	<u>Insert</u>
424	1	VARACHKRA	VARACHAKRA
424	3	Bonddhique	Bouddhique
424	5	kawa	kawna
424	7	1964	khurusapha, 1964
424	11	Lingna	Lingua
425	16	prakar	prahar
425	19	SNAENAREATH	SNAEHAREATH
425	19	yuan	Yuan
425	21	HNOK	NHOK
426	20	Geushner	Librairie Orientalist de Paul Geuthner
427	8	Francois	François

ABSTRACT

Many of the languages spoken in South East Asia, whilst not related to each other at all, do nevertheless possess a number of linguistic features in common. The comparisons that linguists have already made, based on historical evidence and dialect material, with a view to tracing with more certainty to which language-families the languages of South East Asia belong, provide ample proof that a genetic relationship common to all languages of the area is inadmissible. The author's work concentrates on the typological study of grammatical and lexical features of two languages with the aim of providing bases for analysis of any two or more languages that possess parallelism in expression of thought and communication of information, irrespective of whether these languages are related or unrelated. Cambodian and Thai are selected for investigation because, apart from the intrinsic interest in them as languages, they display remarkable similarities of speech habits in spite of their being unrelated and, originally, very dissimilar languages. A considerable number of words and expressions in Cambodian and Thai are analysed and compared, both grammatically and lexically, in order to discover the closeness of the parallelism for usages and constructions. Words and certain types

of expression, being simple items, are grammatically classified into word-classes categorized as Isolatives, Substantives and Predicatives for the purposes of lexical comparison. Compounds and Elaborations, having the nature of a construction, are analysed according to their patterns of constructs. Lexical meanings, recognized as belonging to these constructions in the two languages, are then compared, resulting in a determination of the close similarities in meaning and pattern for constructions. It is hoped that this method of typological comparison may prove valuable in understanding processes governing the acquisition by languages of South East Asia of common characteristics.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author wishes to express her sincere appreciation to The Ford Foundation for the Graduate Training Fellowship awarded to her under the Southeast Asia Fellowship Program through the particularly helpful support of Dr. Roger M. Smith, the Program Advisor in Southeast Asian Studies of The Ford Foundation in Bangkok, Thailand.

The author would like to express her gratitude to her supervisors, Mrs. Judith M. Jacob and Mr. Peter J. Bee, for their helpful guidance and invaluable criticism throughout the preparation of the present work. The author is also indebted to Professor E.H. Stuart Simmonds for his useful suggestions and to Professor Eugénie J.A. Henderson for the most constructive and encouraging discussions.

CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT	2
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	4
LIST OF TABLES	13
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	14
LIST OF PATTERNS	17
 CHAPTER I : INTRODUCTION	 21
 CHAPTER II : METHOD OF GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS	 27
A. Sources of Data	27
1. Linguistic Research Works	28
2. Cambodian and Thai Literature	28
3. Informants	29
B. Grammatical Analysis	29
C. Definition of Terms	30
1. Word	30
2. Item	32
3. Complex	33
4. Construct	33
5. Expression	34
 CHAPTER III : METHOD OF LEXICAL COMPARISON	 35
A. Parameters for Comparison	35
1. Grammatical Function	36
2. Origin of Words	37
3. Lexical Meaning	37

	Page
B. Lexical Comparison	38
1. Classification of Instances for Comparison	38
2. Comparison of Simple Items	39
3. Comparison of Constructed Items	40
4. Discussion of the Characteristics of the Instances	41
 PART I : SIMPLE ITEMS	 45
 CHAPTER IV : GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS OF ISOLATIVES	 46
A. Grammatical Similarities of Isolatives	47
1. Greetings	48
2. Interjections	49
3. Vocatives	49
4. Initiating Expressions	52
5. Responding Particles I	54
B. Grammatical Differences of Isolatives	61
1. Responding Particles II	61
2. Emphatic Responding Particle	62
 CHAPTER V : LEXICAL COMPARISON OF ISOLATIVES	 64
A. Greetings	65
B. Interjections	68
C. Vocatives	72
D. Initiating Expressions	76
E. Responding Particles	83

	Page
CHAPTER VI : GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS OF SUBSTANTIVES	93
A. Grammatical Similarities in the Cambodian and Thai Uses of Substantives	99
1. Mass Nouns	99
2. Fused Nouns I	101
3. Non-Concrete Nouns	104
4. Pronouns Proper	105
5. Quasi-Pronouns	105
6. Titular Numerals	107
7. Pre-Numerals	109
8. Post-Numerals	109
9. Unit Classifiers	110
10. Metric Classifiers	111
11. General Classifiers	112
12. Verb Classifiers	113
13. Positive Determinatives	113
14. Interrogative Determinatives	115
B. Grammatical Differences in the Cambodian and Thai Uses of Substantives	116
1. Common Nouns	116
2. Fused Nouns II	118
C. Partially Similar Classes of Substantives	119
1. Personal Nouns	119
2. Cardinal and Ordinal Numerals	120
D. Comparison of Patterns of Noun Constructs	124
1. Expansion of Members of Noun Constructs	125
2. Two-Member Noun Constructs	127
3. Three-Member Noun Constructs	131
4. Four-Member Noun Constructs	134

	Page
CHAPTER VII : LEXICAL COMPARISON OF SUBSTANTIVES	136
A. Nouns	136
B. Pronouns	145
1. Pronouns Proper	147
2. Quasi-Pronouns	158
C. Numerals	170
1. Pre-Numerals	176
2. Cardinal Numerals	177
3. Ordinal Numerals	180
4. Post-Numerals	182
D. Classifiers	182
1. Unit Classifiers	184
2. Metric Classifiers	191
3. Personal Classifiers	194
4. General Classifiers	195
E. Determinatives	196
1. Positive Determinatives	197
2. Interrogative Determinatives	198
CHAPTER VIII : GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS OF PREDICATIVES	200
A. Classification of Predicatives	201
1. Auxiliaries	201
2. Negators	203
3. Initiating Verbs	204
4. Operative Verbs	205
5. Retro-Active Verbs	208
6. Adjectival Verbs	209
7. Verbal Linkers	211
8. Completive Verbs	213

	Page
9. Post-Verbs	214
10. Adverbials	215
11. Verb Classifiers	217
12. Final Particles	218
B. Patterns of Verb Constructs	220
CHAPTER IX : LEXICAL COMPARISON OF PREDICATIVES	227
A. Auxiliaries	227
B. Negators	231
C. Initiating Verbs	233
D. Operative Verbs	235
E. Retro-Active Verbs	237
F. Adjectival Verbs	239
G. Verbal Linkers	241
H. Completive Verbs	242
I. Post-Verbs	247
J. Adverbials	249
K. Verb Classifiers	257
L. Final Particles	259
 PART II : CONSTRUCTED ITEMS	 263
CHAPTER X : THE CONSTRUCTION OF COMPOUNDS AND ELABORATIONS	264
A. Construction of Compounds	265
1. Lexical Criteria	268
2. Grammatical Criteria	270
B. Construction of Elaborations	272

	Page
CHAPTER XI : GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS OF COMPOUNDS	276
A. Procedure of Grammatical Analysis of Compounds	277
1. Word-Classes of the Components	278
2. Syntactical Features of the Resultant Forms	279
3. Observable Relationships of the Components	280
B. Grammatical Patterns of Compounds	281
1. Pattern 1 : Homogeneous, Orthodox, Additive	285
2. Pattern 2 : Homogeneous, Orthodox, Attributive	286
3. Pattern 4 : Homogeneous, Unorthodox, Attributive	288
4. Pattern 6 : Heterogeneous, Orthodox, Attributive	290
5. Pattern 8 : Heterogeneous, Unorthodox, Attributive	292
CHAPTER XII : LEXICAL COMPARISON OF COMPOUNDS	294
A. Compounds with Constantly Recurring Components	298
1. Compounds with Constantly Recurring Heads	298
2. Compounds with Constantly Recurring Attributes	320
B. Idiomatic Compounds	321
1. Parallel Idiomatic Compounds	322
2. Similar Idiomatic Compounds	323
C. Other Compounds	325

	Page
CHAPTER XIII : THE ANALYSIS OF ELABORATIONS	330
A. Iteratives	335
1. Synonymous Iteratives	336
2. Associated Iteratives	338
3. Intensifying Iteratives	342
B. Polymers	347
C. Reduplicatives	354
1. Alliterative Reduplicatives	355
2. Rhyming Reduplicatives	357
3. Chiming Reduplicatives	358
4. Incidental Reduplicatives	360
D. Antonymies	363
E. Expanded Forms	365
1. Pattern L. 1	367
2. Pattern L. 2	368
3. Pattern L. 3	373
4. Pattern L. 4	374
5. Pattern L. 5	375
CHAPTER XIV : DISCUSSION OF ELABORATIONS	377
A. General Discussion	377
B. Similarities of Lexical Combinations in Elaborations	378
1. Iteratives	378
2. Polymers	379
3. Reduplicatives	380
4. Antonymies	382
5. Expanded Forms	384

	Page
C. Properties of Elaborations	386
1. Specification	386
2. Generalization	388
3. Clarification	389
CHAPTER XV : SUMMARY DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION	391
A. Summary of Results of the Typological Study	391
1. Parallelism in the Use and Construction of Corresponding Grammatical Items in the Two Languages	391
2. Parallelism in the Lexical Selection and Usage	392
3. Parallelism in Certain Stylistic Constructions	394
B. Discussion	394
C. Conclusion	399
APPENDIX A : PHONOLOGICAL TRANSCRIPTION AND TRANSLITERATION OF CAMBODIAN AND THAI	403
APPENDIX B : ORDER OF RANKS OF MEMBERS OF ROYAL FAMILIES IN CAMBODIA AND THAILAND	411
APPENDIX C : HISTORICAL EVIDENCE OF CAMBODIAN BORROWING FROM THAI	416
BIBLIOGRAPHY	422

TABLES

	Page
Table I : Classification of Instances for Lexical Comparison	39
Table II : Occurrences of Sub-Classes of Isolatives	64
Table III : Similarities and Differences in the Cambodian and Thai Uses of Substantives	98
Table IV : Patterns of Nouns with Quantifiers	128
Table V : Patterns of Nouns with Determinatives	129
Table VI : Patterns of Nouns with Adjectival Verbs	130
Table VII : Occurrences of Sub-Classes of Nouns	137
Table VIII : Occurrences of Sub-Classes of Pronouns	146
Table IX : Occurrences of Sub-Classes of Numerals	175
Table X : Occurrences of Sub-Classes of Classifiers	184
Table XI : Occurrences of Sub-Classes of Determinatives	196
Table XII : Occurrences of Sub-Classes of Auxiliaries	228
Table XIII : Occurrences of Sub-Classes of Negators	231
Table XIV : Occurrences of Sub-Classes of Adverbials	249
Table XV : Cambodian and Thai Compounds in Analysed Patterns	283
Table XVI : Occurrences of Cambodian and Thai Compounds in Analysed Patterns	285

ABBREVIATIONS

The following abbreviations are arranged alphabetically with the respective pages shown for their first occurrences in the thesis

	Page
A Adjectival verb expansion in a noun construct	126
Add Additive relationship between components of a compound	282
Adv Adverbial	215
Att Attributive relationship between components of a compound	282
Aux Auxiliary	201
Car Nu Cardinal numeral	96
Cl Classifier	95
Com N Common nouns	94
Comp V Completive verb	213
D Determinative	97
DG Different grammatical functions of corresponding words in Cambodian and Thai	36
DL Different lexical meanings of corresponding words in Cambodian and Thai	37
DO Different origins of corresponding words in Cambodian and Thai	37
*E Intensifying iterative elaborator	342
Fal D Falling-tone determinative	114
FP Final particle	218

Fus N ₁	Fused noun I	94
Fus N ₂	Fused noun II	94
Gen Cl	General classifier	96
Het	Heterogeneous word-classes of components of a compound	282
Hig D	High-tone determinative	
Hom	Homogeneous word-class of components of a compound	282
Int D	Interrogative determinative	97
Lv	Verbal linker	211
Lv ₁	Co-ordinate verbal linker	212
Lv ₂	Subordinate verbal linker	212
Mas N	Mass noun	94
Met Cl	Metric classifier	96
N	Noun, kinship term, title, personal name	51
	Noun expansion in a noun construct	125
Neg	Negator	203
Noc N	Non-concrete noun	95
Nu	Numeral	95
Ord Nu	Ordinal numeral	96
Ort	Orthodox feature of the resultant form of a compound	282
P	Particle	51
Per N	Personal noun	95
Pos D	Positive determinative	97
Pos Nu	Post-numeral	96

Pos V	Post-verb	214
Pr	Pronoun	95
Pre Nu	Pre-numeral	96
Pro Pr	Pronoun proper	95
Q	Quantifier	96
Qua Pr	Quasi-pronoun	95
SG	Same grammatical function of corresponding words in Cambodian and Thai	36
SL	Same (or similar) lexical meaning of corresponding words in Cambodian and Thai	37
SO	Same origin of corresponding words in Cambodian and Thai	37
Tit Nu	Titular numeral	96
Uni Cl	Unit classifier	96
Uno	Unorthodox feature of the resultant form of a compound	282
Va	Adjectival verb	209
Ver Cl	Verb classifier	96
Vi	Initiating verb	204
Vo	Operative verb	205
Vr	Retro-active verb	208

PATTERNS

	Page
<u>Grammatical Patterns of Simple Items</u>	
G. 1 : N	51
G. 2 : NP / PN / NPN	51
G. 3 : P	51
G. 4 : N + Q	99
G. 4.1 : N + Nu + Cl	99
G. 4.1.1 : Mas N + Car Nu + Met Cl	100
G. 4.1.2 : Noc N + Car Nu + Gen Cl	104
G. 4.1.3 : Com N + Car Nu + Uni Cl	117
G. 4.1.4 : Per N + Car Nu + Uni Cl	119
G. 4.2 : N + Cl + Nu	99
G. 4.2.1 : Mas N + Met Cl + Ord Nu	100
G. 4.2.2 : Noc N + Gen Cl + Ord Nu	104
G. 4.2.3 : Com N + Uni Cl + Ord Nu	117
G. 4.2.4 : Per N + Uni Cl + Ord Nu	120
G. 4.3 : Nu + N	102
G. 4.3.1 : Car Nu + Fus N ₁	102
G. 4.3.2 : Tit Nu + N	108
G. 4.3.3 : Car Nu + Fus N ₂	118

	Page
G. 4.4 : N + Nu	102
G. 4.4.1 : Fus N_1 + Ord Nu	102
G. 4.4.2 : Noc N + Ord Nu	105
G. 4.4.3 : N + Tit Nu	107
G. 4.4.4 : Com N + Car Nu	117
G. 4.4.5 : Com N + Ord Nu	117
G. 4.4.6 : Fus N_2 + Ord Nu	118
G. 4.4.7 : Per N + Ord Nu	120
G. 5 : N + D	99
G. 5.1 : N + Pos D	114
G. 5.1.1 : N + Cl + Hig D	114
G. 5.1.2 : N + Fal D	114
G. 5.1.3 : Fus N / Noc N + Hig D	115
G. 6 : N + A	127
G. 6.1 : N + Cl + A	130
G. 6.2 : N + P + A	130
G. 7 : N + Q + A	131
G. 8 : N + A + Q	131
G. 9 : N + Q + D	131
G. 10 : N + D + Q	131
G. 11 : N + A + D	131
G. 12 : N + A + Q + D	135
G. 13 : N + A + D + Q	135
G. 14 : N + Q + A + D	135

G. 15	: Aux + Neg + Vo + (object) + Pos V + Adv	220
G. 16	: Aux + Neg + Va + Pos V + Adv + FP	220
G. 17	: Vo + (object) + Lv ₂ + Comp V + (object) + Pos V + Adv + FP	220
G. 18.1	: Vo + (Lv ₁) + Vo ... + Lv ₁ + Vo	221
G. 18.2	: Va + Va + Va ... + Lv ₁ + Va	221
G. 19	: Vo + (N) + Vo + (N)	222
G. 20	: Vo + Vo ... + N	222
G. 21	: Vo + N ₁ + Vo + N ₂	222
	Vo + N ₁ + (Lv ₂) + Vo + N ₂	222
G. 22	: Vo + (Lv ₂) + N + Comp V	223
G. 23	: Vo + N + (Lv ₂) + Vo	224
G. 24	: Vo + N + (Lv ₂) + Comp V + N	224
G. 25	: Vo + Va / Vo + Lv ₂ + Va	225

Grammatical Patterns of Compounds

Pattern 1	: Hom-Ort-Add	281
Pattern 2	: Hom-Ort-Att	281
Pattern 3	: Hom-Uno-Add	282
Pattern 4	: Hom-Uno-Att	282
Pattern 5	: Het-Ort-Add	282
Pattern 6	: Het-Ort-Att	282
Pattern 7	: Het-Uno-Add	282
Pattern 8	: Het-Uno-Att	282

Lexical Patterns of Expanded Forms

L. 1	:	C X C Y	/	C Y C X	365
L. 2	:	W X W Y	/	W Y W X	365
	:	W X' W Y'	/	W Y' W X'	365
L. 3	:	B ₁ B ₂ Z Z			365
L. 4	:	W *O B ₁ B ₂			365
L. 5	:	B ₁ *O B ₁ B ₂			365

where C X is a compound composing of two components,
a disyllable,

W X is a grammatical construction of two components,

X Y is an elaboration,

X'Y' is an antonymy, two words having opposite meanings,

B₁, B₂ is a word or a syllable which is counted as one
rhythmic beat,

Z is an expanded elaborator,

W is a word, mostly of one syllable,

and *O is a 'nonsense' word or an expanded elaborator
having no meaning appropriate to the context.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

South East Asia, the area to which belong the two languages with which this thesis is concerned, is both culturally and linguistically complex. Most of the area was deeply influenced by Indian civilization for a very long period and is permeated by Buddhism and by what remains of Brahministic practices; yet on the outer fringes, in Vietnam and Malaysia, it was the cultures of China and Islam which finally gained ascendancy. Linguistically, with Assamese, Burmese and Mon in the West; Shan, Tibetan and many Tai dialects of South China to the North; Lao, Vietnamese and Cambodian in the East; Malay and Indonesian to the South; and Thai in the centre, there is no lack of variety. Attempts have been made to relate some of these languages together and also to relate some of them to a larger family. Linguistic similarities and differences have been produced for comparison to support one assumption or another, but the present state of knowledge about the families of languages only goes so far as to admit the possibility that the Tai family, which includes Thai, Lao, Shan in Burma, Khamti in Assam and Tai dialects in Northern Vietnam and Southern China, is one linguistic group (Li 1960¹, Brown 1965², Jones 1966³), whilst the Cambodian, Cham, Vietnamese and many

dialects in the Malayan peninsula and in Burma are generally thought to be basically related in another linguistic group (Haudricourt 1953)⁴.*

The peoples of this area, in as much as they share common surroundings and common sources of cultural development, tend to influence one another in all aspects of life's activities. Perhaps it is as a consequence of this that many distinctive linguistic features occur in common throughout the languages of South East Asia even where there is no genetic relationship. Moreover, several of these languages have been greatly influenced in their lexis by Sanskrit and Pali in similar ways.

In spite of disagreements which arise in any attempt to set up a satisfactory family of languages for South East Asia, scholars have been trying to point out a number of similar characteristics or phenomena that occur when any two of these languages are compared. Thai, Cambodian, Vietnamese and Burmese have received greater attention than other languages. Thus, Cooke compared the pronominal reference in Thai, Burmese and Vietnamese (Cooke 1968)⁵. Certain phonological and grammatical characteristics have been analysed and compared for Thai and Cambodian (Martini 1956)

* The author's name is given here with the year and, where appropriate, number(s) of his publication, the detailed reference of which is listed in the Bibliography at the end of this thesis.

Martini 1957-1958 ⁷, Nacaskul 1962 ⁸, Huffman 1971 ⁹). Similar analyses for Thai and Vietnamese (Honey and Simmonds 1963)¹⁰ and for Vietnamese and Cambodian (Martini 1959)¹¹ have received a fair amount of attention. Yet, it is clear from the synchronic as well as diachronic evidences that these languages, or at least the Thai and Cambodian languages, are not genetically related (Huffman 1971)⁹. The interest of the above mentioned works rests either on the similarities and differences that may throw some light on the historical study and on the language family of the languages concerned, or on the borrowing of words and of certain grammatical features. No extensive investigation has been carried out in order to compare in detail any two or more of these languages. In order to test the soundness of the conclusion that South East Asia is indeed a linguistic unity, it would be necessary for a comprehensive study of all languages to be made with a common method of analysis and using a common terminology (Honey and Simmonds 1963)¹⁰.

The present thesis is the result of research on the Cambodian and Thai languages, during which the fulfilment of the above requirement was constantly borne in mind. The aim has been to present the parallelism in classification, usage and lexical meanings of linguistic items. The comparisons, covering both simple and constructed items, are carried out in two parts. In

each part the study is conducted in two dimensions : grammatical and lexical. The grammatical analysis of the items in the two languages is presented together on a common basis, using the same terminology and definition as closely as possible. Any instances of different behaviour for these items are noted and discussed. Within the arrangements of grammatical class and usage, certain items are compared with a view to laying down the similarities and/or differences in, wherever applicable, all three of the following characteristics; namely, the grammatical class, the origin of words and the lexical meaning. The thesis begins with a statement of the method of grammatical analysis in Chapter II and of the method of lexical comparison in Chapter III. The work is then divided into two principal parts. In Part I, the comparative typological study of simple items in Cambodian and Thai, there are six chapters, Chapters IV to IX inclusive, dealing in turn grammatically and lexically with three grammatical groups; namely, Isolatives, Substantives and Predicatives. Chapters X to XIV inclusive in Part II, on the study of constructed items, deal with the analysis and comparison of Compounds and Elaborations.

On the whole, the word-classes and sub-classes of simple items considered in Part I are shown to have parallels in both the Thai and Cambodian languages. Grammatical constructs which involve more than one word-class are also comparable and the

borrowing of syntactical features is easily observed. The lexical comparison of simple items is useful in producing a clear picture of Cambodian and Thai inventories of lexicon. These are almost entirely different, except when borrowing is involved.

Compounds and Elaborations are selected from among the constructions for comparison in Part II. The remarkable features of their processes of lexical combination and their close derivational connections one with another made a side-by-side study appropriate. The investigation of compounds involved the grammatical and syntactical analysis of their underlying structure as well as lexical analysis. The study of elaborations involved the discussion of certain styles of speech and of the embellishment of the languages. The study of these two constructed items, Compounds and Elaborations, clearly confirms one's general feeling that, in Cambodian and Thai, word-classes and their usage are almost identical; while the ranges of syntactic occurrence, the ways of expressing ideas and the appreciation of certain types of elaboration in speech forms are surprisingly similar.

This method of comparative study, that is by applying both grammatical and lexical analysis to simple and constructed items, is considered by the author to be distinctly valuable for the understanding of factors responsible for similarities and differences between two or more languages when they are genetically

unrelated yet very close together in many typological aspects. The method might well be further applied to other South East Asian languages since, as already mentioned above, the peoples in South East Asia, through the close interplay of cultures over a long period of time, have come to use speech habits in many similar ways. The occurrence of numeral classifiers, the use of reduplication for grammatical as well as for stylistic purposes, the practice of making elaborations such as those presented in this work, for example, are all instances of similarities found in all South East Asian languages.

CHAPTER II

METHOD OF GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS

Word-classes and sub-classes of the three grammatical classifications in Cambodian and Thai, Isolatives, Substantives and Predicatives, are separately compared in three chapters, i.e. Chapters IV, VI, and VIII. Each chapter is devoted to the discussion of the similarities and differences of the various classes. Cambodian and Thai word-classes which perform the same function are grouped together. Those which function differently are discussed at the end of each chapter concerned. The decision for judging any word-class or sub-class as 'similar' or 'different' is based on their functional characteristics in relation with other classes or sub-classes. Examples are provided in all cases. Each of the three chapters, Chapters IV, VI and VIII, is followed by a chapter in which the results of the lexical comparison of the same material are given.

A. SOURCES OF DATA

A typological comparison of any two languages presupposes a sound description of them regarding the basic characteristics and syntactical functions of all units in the languages as well as the lexical meanings and usages of all units both in isolation and in combination with other units. A large amount of data from

a variety of sources is needed to ensure a justified and reliable result for the comparison. The author takes Modern Standard Cambodian and Thai languages as sources for comparison. The sources from which data have been collected in preparing this thesis are of three types, as described below.

1. Linguistic Research Works

Grammatical analyses of the Cambodian and Thai languages have been carried out in great detail by many distinguished linguists. It is hardly necessary to list all their works.* However, a few to which the present work most often refers are acknowledged here.

a) Judith M. Jacob, 'Introduction to Cambodian', London, 1968 ¹³.

b) Richard B. Noss, 'Cambodian, Basic Course', Washington, D.C., 1966 ¹⁴.

c) Richard B. Noss, 'Thai Reference Grammar', Washington, D.C., 1964 ¹⁵.

d) Vichin Panupong, 'Inter-Sentence Relations in Modern Conversational Thai', Bangkok, 1970 ¹⁶.

2. Cambodian and Thai Literature

Words, compounds and elaborations to be studied for the

* References to be found in Shorto, Jacob and Simmonds 1963 ¹².

purpose of comparison are taken from a thorough and extensive reading of a large number of Cambodian and Thai novels, works of poetry, newspaper articles and journals, which were written from 1867 A.D. up to the present time. The year 1867 marks the beginning of the French Protectorate in Cambodia and also, the Thai relinquishment of suzerainty-rights over Cambodia under the treaty signed in Paris on July 15, 1867 (Smith 1965, pp. 18-19)¹⁷. In addition, monolingual dictionaries of Cambodian (1967)¹⁸ and Thai (1950)¹⁹ have been consulted as sources for data.

3. Informants

Use was made of a Cambodian informant especially for testing the range of functions which a particular word or word-class can perform, and also to test the overall meaning of constructed items. The Cambodian informant, Mr. Tan Lek Hor, is a native of Phnom Penh and is at present reading for an M.Phil. degree in Cambodian Literature at the School of Oriental and African Studies. The author regards herself as the informant for the Thai language; she is a native of Bangkok and a senior lecturer in Thai Language and Literature at Chulalongkorn University in Bangkok.

B. GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS

Grammatical units in Cambodian and Thai are defined and compared according to their classes as well as their syntactical

functions. The definitions of all word-classes and sub-classes are given in such a way that they cover the principal characteristics of both Cambodian and Thai classes which bear the same names. Words are assigned to word-classes after an examination of their characteristic behaviour in relation to the sentence as a whole, to the subject and predicate, and to other word-classes. Simultaneous occurrences with key-words are also taken as criteria.

C. DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

1. Word

The word is defined as a linguistic form, either bound or free, which corresponds to the smallest unit of Immediate Constituent (IC) analysis (Bloch and Trager 1942)²⁰, but does not enter into a combination with any other form in such a way as to impose discontinuity (as in the processes of infixation), or to involve morphophonemic activity other than stress and juncture (as in the processes of prefixation). Thus, infixed and prefixed morphemes are not words, whilst, on the other hand, the bound form which enters into a combination with a base-word or with another bound form, without affecting a discontinuity to the base-word or interfering with its morphophonemic characteristic, will be treated as a word.

a) Referential word

Apart from being a linguistic form with the above definition,

most words will be expected to have a reference to some extrinsic feature, i.e. meaning, and will thus be 'referential words'. The meaning of a word cannot be deduced from its intrinsic linguistic form; it must be learned. The process of learning also relies upon collocation as well as upon acknowledged definition to attach a meaning to a word. There may be two levels to the learning of meaning : the basic meaning and the conventional meaning. The basic meaning is that which the native speaker of the language will have in mind when he thinks of the word. A conventional meaning can be discovered only from the different collocations. It may deviate from the basic meaning but there is a convention which will permit this specialization of a word's meaning to take place. This convention is the acceptance of certain usages as idiomatic by the majority of members of a relevant speech group at any one period of time. For this thesis, the period of time is the present (1971) and the relevant speech groups are the Cambodian and Thai communities who speak what have become agreed upon as the Modern Standard forms of the languages.

b) Phonaesthetic word

In Cambodian and Thai languages, there are certain linguistic forms in which the recognition of a phonaesthetic 'clue' or of a simple onomatopoeia allows a deduction of their meaning to be made to some extent. Thus, the relationship between the phonology and the basic meaning is not entirely arbitrary. Changes of sound

(umlaut or ablaut in vowels, for instance) do not necessarily produce changes of meaning in any ordinary sense; they may produce changes in the shade of meaning, or they may, by analogy with an echo or chime, reinforce the phonaesthetic clue. Words with such meanings will be referred to as phonaesthetic words.

c) Nonsense word

Nonsense words are bound forms occurring in certain constructions of a consciously elaborate nature. They are remainders after the categorisation of all other words in the combination has been completed. Phonologically, they 'sound' like words; morphologically, they fit in like words. They have, however, no reference to be learned nor any appeal to phonaesthesia or onomatopoeia in themselves. Their meaning resides in being a constituent element in the meaning of the combination as a whole, often by being in a rhyming or chiming relationship with other words in the combination. Their function is only that of a stylishly affective filler. Their meaning occurs only at the level of the complex (see the following definition). At the level of isolated words this meaning so lacks exponency as to deserve the term 'Nonsense'. They will be so called -- 'Nonsense Words' -- in this thesis.

2. Item

An item is defined as a word or a combination of words

formed by their integrated lexical relationship. Two types of items are considered in the present study, viz. simple items and constructed items. The former are words and certain expressions which have restricted occurrences in their usage. The latter are divided into two sub-classes of Compounds and Elaborations, the definitions of which, together with the reason for choosing them for typological comparison, are given in detail in Chapter X.

3. Complex

A complex is a combination of two or more words, which can be defined by other characteristics as a construct, a downgraded sentence, a compound or an elaboration. In other words, any construction bigger than a word but smaller than a sentence will, unless otherwise defined, be termed 'a complex'.

4. Construct

A construct is defined as a syntactical construction of words, complexes, or words and complexes, which functions as a sentence constituent. A construct can be arrived at by the Immediate Constituent analysis of the sentence; and it can be internally analysed as being one of a variety of patterns of word-combination. Constructs are named after their function in the sentence as 'Noun construct', 'Verb construct', and 'Adverbial construct'. The structure of a construct can be endocentric or exocentric.

5. Expression

The word 'expression' is used in this work to refer to certain set forms which are composed of more than one word and the construction of which might be complicated but the components of which are very closely bound together, either conventionally or lexically. An expression differs from a compound in that it may be longer and may, within itself, contain words and constructions which have been specified as counter-indications for a compound. For instance, it may include pronouns, linkers, markers or determinatives, provided that these occur in a quotation form which makes them inseparable from the context as well as invariable. Expressions are thus treated in this work, in spite of their complex nature, as simple items. Isolatives in Cambodian and Thai are in many cases expressions.

CHAPTER III

METHOD OF LEXICAL COMPARISON

Cambodian and Thai lexical items are compared for similarity or difference of meanings in the chapter appropriate to their word-class. Thus isolatives are compared in Chapter V, substantives in Chapter VII and predicatives in Chapter IX. For small and closed word-classes, e.g. numerals, verbal linkers, etc., a comparison between all comparable items that occur in both languages can be presented and any conclusion drawn from the result can be regarded as justified. In large and open word-classes, the classes of nouns and verbs, for example, a comparison can only be conducted so as to display examples and to discuss them under various instances of combination of grammatical and lexical features together with categorization of the origins of words. An attempt has been made to cover as many items as possible in order to be representative of the degree of similarity or difference in the lexicon of the two languages.

A. PARAMETERS FOR COMPARISON

The grammatical classes are taken as starting points for comparison of simple items, whereas the lexical meaning is taken as starting point for constructed items. It has been found expedient to consider the origin of words to be compared as this helps to explain the similarity and difference in the lexical

meanings of all items. The parameters for comparison are thus taken to be :

- (i) Grammatical function
- (ii) Origin of words
- (iii) Lexical meaning.

1. Grammatical Function

It is on the basis of its word-class that an item is classified with regard to its grammatical function. Items are designated as SG or DG, standing for 'same/similar' or 'different' grammatical word-classes in the comparison of the two languages, according to the categorization made in the chapters on grammatical analysis for all classes of items. Those items which are classified as SG do not necessarily have the same grammatical function in all situations; they can have a different range of usages. The Cambodian word //ʔəŋkəː//* 'rice' and the Thai word /khâ:w/* 'rice', for example, have grammatically the same function (i.e., they are nouns) and are classed as SG in the comparison because they are defined and categorized as 'Mass Noun' in both languages, even

* The double slant lines //...// are to bracket the phonological transcription of Cambodian examples, and the single slant lines /.../ are used to bracket the Thai examples throughout the thesis. A brief introduction to the systems of transcription is given in Appendix A.

though the functional characteristics of a mass noun in Cambodian and in Thai are not necessarily identical.

In the case of constructed items, the grammatical function of the whole item is taken into account. The main basis for judgement is the comparison of each constituent item in terms of word-class and in terms of grammatical construction or elaboration-pattern.

2. Origin of Words

Items are designated as SO or DO, standing for 'same origins' or 'different origins', depending on whether they stem from common or different origins. Words having similar forms and meanings in the Cambodian and Thai languages are taken to be of the same origin, since phonologically they can be proved to be loans from a common source even if the true, ultimate origin is unknown (Nacaskul 1962, pp. 134-201)⁸. In the case of certain items (mostly occurring as isolatives)* which are composed of more than one word, and are classified as expressions, one or two key-words in the combinations are taken as basis for judgement.

3. Lexical Meaning

Items are designated as SL for 'same or similar meanings' or as DL for 'different meanings', according to the lexical or

* See Chapter V.

basic meanings (see Section C.1a in Chapter II) which the two items express. It is widely accepted, however, that the meaning of words changes with the manner of usage. Some linguists, J.R.Firth for example, hold the extreme view that each word has a new meaning in each new context of utterance (Firth 1957)²¹. For the present work of comparing lexical meanings in Cambodian and Thai, only the meaning which is considered to be the characteristic common property of each word is examined.

For the Royal Terminology in both Cambodian and Thai, words of different grammatical units and with different meanings may be formed into an item performing a certain grammatical function with a particular lexical usage. The comparison of the word-by-word lexical meanings of these expressions may often be different, but if the usage and the overall implied meanings are the same in both languages, the expressions are regarded as SL in the pattern under comparison.

B. LEXICAL COMPARISON

1. Classification of Instances for Comparison

The three parameters of comparison, viz. grammatical function, origin of words, and lexical meaning, with the possibility for each of sameness/similarity or difference, yield up to eight possible combinations, to be referred to as 'Instances' in the subsequent comparative study. Table I below

shows the classification of Instances for lexical comparison, with 'S' denoting 'sameness or similarity' and with 'D' denoting 'difference' in each parameter assigned to each pair of items under consideration.

TABLE I
CLASSIFICATION OF INSTANCES FOR LEXICAL COMPARISON

Instance	Grammatical Function -G-	Origin of Word -O-	Lexical Meaning -L-	Instance Code
1	S	S	S	SG SO SL
2	S	S	D	SG SO DL
3	S	D	S	SG DO SL
4	S	D	D	SG DO DL
5	D	S	S	DG SO SL
6	D	S	D	DG SO DL
7	D	D	S	DG DO SL
8	D	D	D	DG DO DL

2. Comparison of Simple Items

The lexical comparison of simple items is based on the preceding grammatical analysis of these items, therefore the result of the comparison will produce any of the first four

Instance codes, Instances 1 to 4, as shown in Table I. Instances 5 to 8 possessing different grammatical functions (DG) are not appropriate to the comparison of simple items since the analysis is based on common grammatical features as the preliminary criteria. The items that are assigned with the same Instance Code are discussed together under separate grammatical headings.

3. Comparison of Constructed Items

Constructed items are compared and commented upon at two levels, i.e. that of the whole construction and that of the components of the construction. The whole constructions are compared in two Instances, using only two parameters, that is, those of lexical meaning and grammatical features*. The corresponding components of these items are compared in sequential order; the first component with the first, the second with the second, and so forth. In a number of cases, different word-classes arise and the items under investigation thus include components scheduled for comparison under DG as their Instance code. All eight Instances are thus applicable to the lexical comparison of components of constructed items. However, examples of Instance 6 have not been found to occur in the comparison.

* See Chapters XII and XIII for lexical comparison of compounds and elaborations respectively. Also see Chapter XI for grammatical analysis of compounds.

4. Discussion of the Characteristics of the Instances

a) Instance 1 : SG SO SL

Owing to the close interrelationship between the Cambodian and Thai languages, there exist simple items, compounds and elaborations which are common to the two languages in origin and grammar as well as being lexically similar. Words of this type abound and all of them are assumed to be loan-words from either one language into the other or from another language into both. It has been proved by phonological evidence that borrowing and cross-borrowing of words between these two languages has been remarkably abundant (Nacaskul 1962).⁸ Instance 1, then, may be used to give clear proof of the strong similarity of the Cambodian and Thai lexicon and to indicate the degree to which there has been borrowing and cross-borrowing between the two languages.

b) Instance 2 : SG SO DL

This category includes items of the same origin and with the same grammatical function but with different lexical meanings and/or usages.

Items in this Instance are , in fact, loan-words which possess the same grammatical function but whose lexical meanings and usages have become different,— probably through the influences of the users' own language over a long period of time.

c) Instance 3 : SG DO SL

Items discussed here are of different origins but having the same grammatical functions and the same or similar meanings.

The fact that a large number of Cambodian and Thai words are cited and discussed under this Instance 3 may be regarded as a support of the concept that Cambodian and Thai are basically two different languages; the similarities in grammatical usage and lexical meaning may be regarded as linguistically normal. Between any two languages one can, without difficulty, find pairs of words with the same grammatical functions and the same meanings, especially in word-classes which are universal such as noun, verb, etc. However, in the case of Cambodian and Thai, pairs of words with the above qualification occur also in certain special word-classes which are particularly characteristic of the Cambodian and Thai languages. It is even more interesting to discover a large number of compounds and elaborations of which both the internal and external structures conform to this Instance code of SG DO SL. They present clearcut evidence for what can be called loan-translation, a process which occurs as the result of the interplay of the two languages over a long period of close cultural exchange.

d) Instance 4 : SG DO DL

Items which answer to this Instance yield little additional

interest, since the similarity between the pair of words lies only in grammatical functions. However, for some small word-classes, of which all or nearly all members can be cited, an attempt has been made to present these members. Nevertheless, items falling into this Instance 4 will not be presented for comparison in the same way as items in the previous Instances. They will be listed only as separate occurrences in each of the two languages.

e) Instance 5 : DG SO SL

The items conforming to this Instance are those with common origin and with the same lexical meaning though their grammatical functions are different.

Instance 5 attracts particular interest because it shows the words definitely to be loan-words. The differences in grammatical function are probably due to :-

(i) the misunderstanding by the borrower of grammatical functions in the donor language,

(ii) the grammatical function or syntactical structure of the donor language not being favoured or not existing in the language of the borrower,

(iii) other influences such as rationalization and 'folk etymology'.

f) Instance 6 : DG SO DL

Words of the same origin which function differently and produce different lexical meanings are not found to exist in the constructed items that have been investigated. This Instance 6, however, is quoted in order to complete the number of theoretically possible combinations in Table I.

g) Instance 7 : DG DO SL

A few items occurring as components of compounds or elaborations in either of the two languages, when compared with their corresponding forms in the other language, result in Instance 7.

h) Instance 8 : DG DO DL

This Instance is completely irrelevant to the comparison : there are no features in common at all. However, there are certain idiomatic compounds and elaborations in the two languages, which, with the same or similar meanings and with or without the same grammatical function, may have some of their corresponding components falling under Instance 8. Examples of this Instance are given in Secion XII.C.*

* This is a shortened form for ' Section C of Chapter XII '.

PART I

SIMPLE ITEMS

CHAPTER IV

GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS OF ISOLATIVES

Isolatives are words or expressions which can, and mostly do, occur as sole constituents of sentences. They can be analysed, on the basis of their typical occurrences, into five categories :

- (i) Greetings
- (ii) Interjections
- (iii) Vocatives
- (iv) Initiating Expressions
- (v) Responding Particles.

Isolatives in the Cambodian and Thai languages can occur with sentences. When they do, they mostly precede the sentences. Isolatives of different categories can occur together in patterns, some of which are shown below :

Pattern of Occurrence

Greeting + Vocative :

Cambodian //suəsɔ̌vɿ kru:-pɛ:t// 'Hello, doctor!'

Thai /səwɔ̌tɔ̌i: mǎ:/ 'Hello, doctor!'

Interjection + Vocative :

Cambodian //ʔo: bə:ŋ// 'Oh, brother!'

Thai /tǎ:y phî:/ 'Oh, brother!'

Responding particle + Vocative :

Cambodian //bɑ:t ʔo:puk// 'Yes, father.'

Thai /khrǎp khun-phô:/ 'Yes, father.'

Interjection + Vocative + Greeting

Cambodian //ʔao lo:k cumri:əp so:// 'Oh! Good morning to you.'

Thai /ʔúy khun pəy nǎy mə:/ 'Oh! it's you, where've you been?'

Vocative + Greeting

Cambodian //lo:k kru: suəsɔ̃y// 'Good morning teacher.'

Thai /khru: khǎh səwǎtdi:/ 'Good morning teacher.'

A grammatical analysis of the usage of isolatives in Cambodian and Thai is here carried out as a comparative study in order to bring out their similarities or differences. It will be seen that in most situations the usage is very similar.

A. GRAMMATICAL SIMILARITIES OF ISOLATIVES

Greetings, interjections and vocatives are types of isolatives which are of common occurrence in the majority of languages. Responding particles in Cambodian and Thai, however, often function differently from those occurring in a large number of European languages. An interesting type of isolative is the initiating expression, which is widely used in Cambodian but used restrictedly in Thai for Royal Terminology.* This fact could

* The Royal Terminology comprises a branch of the language that is used only for addressing or referring to the members of royal families as well as certain vocabulary which is used in addressing or referring to monks. See Appendix B for the order of ranks of members of royal families in Cambodia and Thailand.

be regarded as one feature of the Thai language which is due to direct influence from Cambodian.

1. Greetings

'Greetings' are defined as words or expressions which are used as a conventional language, the language of good etiquette, for speakers in the Cambodian and Thai societies. They, therefore, include terms for greeting and for the start as well as the close of conversation. Words and expressions used in these situations are classified as isolatives because they are mostly uttered as independent units by themselves. They are mostly fixed as to the form and context in which they are used. Some examples are given here.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>
//həy//	/ŋəy/ (How?)*
'Hello!'	'Hello!'
//nsek tɿu nə://	/pəy nəy mə://
'Where are you going?'	'Where have you been?'
//sok səpɛə:y ci:ə te://	/səpɛə:y di: rú://
'How are you?'	'How are you?'

* The parentheses (.....) enclose literal translations, which are given when they are thought necessary; otherwise, free translations are given and are denoted by the inverted commas '.....'.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>
//cumri:əp li:ə// (make known one's leaving) 'Good-bye.'	/lɑ: kɔ̌:n nǎʔ/ 'Good-bye.'

2. Interjections

'Interjections' are isolatives which are normally uttered with exclamatory intonation. They are classified as isolatives, even though they may be quite extensive in form and have the construction of a complex or a sentence. Interjections can occur by themselves, lead a conversation, or occur as exclamatory reactions to the preceding utterances. They can also occur in soliloquy.

<u>Usage</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>
remark in complaining or when feeling awkward	//yi:!!//	/mǎ:!!/
exclamation in surprise	//ʔo:!!//	/ʔúy!//
exclamation when just remembering a certain matter	//ʔay ya:!!//	/tɑ:y ciŋ!//

3. Vocatives

'Vocatives' are isolatives which are used in calling the attention of other speakers. They occur more frequently preceding utterances, but can also occur in the middle or at the end of a sentence. In the examples below vocatives are underlined.

- Cambodian //bɔːŋ kom tuk peːk//
 'Darling (elder), don't worry too much.'
 //ʔoːn soːm liːə hæy bɔːŋ//
 'I have to say good-bye now, darling.'
 //bɔːŋ pibɑːk cʋt nəs nəhæy səophiː trəəm nʋu doːcniːh
 sʋn trʋ//
 'I do feel much troubled, so, Sophie, be patient and
 stay as we are.'
 //ʔəŋcʋːp pəm bɑːrʋy khmuːəy//
 (please--consume--cigarette--nephew) *
 'Do have a cigarette, nephew.'
Thai /lūːk kin nom sək thūːəy mǎy cǎ/
 'Son, would you like to have a glass of milk?'
 /phǎː phǎːn nǐː phǐː nǎː sǎː mǎː hǎy/
 'This piece of cloth, sister, I bought for you.'
 /mǎː nǎŋ thǐː nǐː thǎː? khun/
 (come--sit--at--this--P**--you)
 'Come and sit here, dear.'

In Cambodian and Thai, kinship terms, titles***, personal names and nouns occur as vocatives, either singly or together

* The double hyphens -- are used to isolate the meanings in the literal translation.

** 'P' stands for 'Particle' as described in Panupong 1970.¹⁶

*** See also Sections VI.A.5 and VII.B.

with certain particles. There are also particles which can be used as vocatives alone without accompanying names or nouns.

If 'N' stands for 'nouns, kinship terms, titles, personal names', and 'P' stands for 'particles', the patterns of vocatives will be as follows :-

- G.1* : N
 G.2 : NP PN NPN
 G.3 : P

Examples are given below :-

<u>Pattern</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>
G.1: N	//po:li:s// 'Police!'	/təmruət/ 'Police!'
	//pʔo:n// 'Sister!'	/nó:n/ 'Sister!'
	//prəpəən// 'wife!'	/mā:li:/ 'Mali!'
	//lo:k sək pi:// 'Lieutenant!'	/nā:y rō:y/ 'Lieutenant!'
G.2: NP	//vi: ʔəy// 'Vee!'	/wi: ʔy:y/ 'Wee!'

* 'G' followed by a number denotes a particular 'pattern of grammatical construct'.

<u>Pattern</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>
G.2 : NP	//ko:n ?æy// 'Children!'	/lû:k cǎ:/ 'Children!'
PN	//mni:əl prəsdæŋ// 'Oh Sir!'	/du:-kô:n chu:chók/ 'Oh, Chuchok!'
NPN	//phliəŋ ?æy phliəŋ// 'What rain!'	/fǒn ?ʔ:y fǒn/ 'What rain!'
G.3 : P	//nɛ:// 'Look here!'	/nî: nê?/ 'Look here!'

4. Initiating Expressions

Initiating expressions are isolatives which are used to introduce two types of language, namely, the Royal Terminology and the language for written correspondence. It is a normal practice in Cambodian and Thai to use initiating expressions when addressing a member of a royal family,* as well as in writing formal letters in general. The form of the expression is traditionally fixed in each particular context.

Initiating expressions in Cambodian, however, occur not only in the Royal Terminology but also in the common language

* The Cambodian Royal Terminology here quoted is taken from 'Tumniem kar phteal khluan' by Samdach Preah Reach Ayyako Varacakra Ranariddhi (1953)²². The Thai Royal Terminology is mostly quoted from 'Rachasap chabap sombun' by Sa-nguan Ankhong (1964)²³.

of the people. The Thai language does not have an equivalent practice. This function of Cambodian initiating expressions is, in fact, closer to the characteristic of responding particles and is accordingly discussed below in B.1.

Examples of initiating expressions in addressing a king or a queen :

(i) by a man :

Cambodian //so:m truəŋ prəəh me:tta: praos//
'May Your Majesty be merciful. '

Thai /khǒ: de:chǎ? fǎ: ləʔə:ŋ thǔli: phrá? bǎ:t
pòk klâ:w pòk krəmôm/
'May the powder of the dust under the auspicious
feet of Your Majesty be over the crown of my head.'

(ii) by a woman :

Cambodian //krə:p tu:l//
'I prostrate myself to inform you.'

Thai /khǒ: de:chǎ? fǎ: ləʔə:ŋ thǔli: phrá? bǎ:t
pòk klâ:w pòk krəmôm/
'May the powder of the dust under the auspicious
feet of Your Majesty be over the crown of my head.'

Examples of initiating expressions in formal letter writing :

(i) Addressed to an ordinary monk :

Cambodian //so:m nəməsseka: mə:k lo:k kru: ...(name of the monk)...
so:m cri:əp//
'May I pay respect to the Very Reverend ... for his
attention.'

Thai /nəmǎ́tsekɑːn...(name of the monk)/
 'May I pay respect to....'

(ii) Salutation in general formal letters :

Cambodian //so:m ti:ən cri:əp//
 'Please take notice.'

Thai /riən/
 'To...'

5. Responding Particles I

'Responding Particles' are isolatives for responding to utterances of the other speaker. The response may mean merely that the utterance has been heard and understood, or it may mean that the hearer agrees with or accepts the implications of the utterance. Responding particles can occur by themselves or be accompanied by other particles.

Responding particles are divided into two classes depending on the similarity or difference of their grammatical functions in the Cambodian language in comparison with those in the Thai language. Responding Particles I are those which occur similarly in both languages. Responding Particles II are those which occur in Cambodian with no counterparts in Thai and are discussed in B.1 below.

Responding Particles I can be classified into four groups on the basis of their occurrence in each context, though some of

the terms in different contexts may coincide. Responding particles of type I are used in the following contexts :

- answering a call
- answering a command or order
- acknowledging information
- answering a Yes/No question.

a) Responding particles used in answering a call

(i) Ordinary language

<u>Usage</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>
man answering politely	//bɑ:t//	/khráp/, /khráp/, /kháp/, /há?/
woman answering politely	//cas//	/khă:/, /khă:/

(ii) Royal Terminology

<u>Usage</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>
man answering a member of royal family of Rank 1	//prəh kərɯɑ: pise:s//, //prəh kərɯɑ: thlay pise:s//	/phrá? phútthecāw khâ:/
woman answering a member of royal family of Rank 1	//prəh pə: ci:ə mcas//	/phrá? phútthecāw khâ/

b) Responding particles used in answering a command

or order

(i) Ordinary language

<u>Usage</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>
man answering politely	//bɑ:t//	/khráp/, /khǎ:ráp/
woman answering politely	//cas//	/cāw khâ/, /khâ/

(ii) Royal Terminology

<u>Usage</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>
man answering a monk*	//kəɲɑ//	/khǎ: rǎp/, /khrǎp/
woman answering a monk	//kəɲɑ://	/cǎw khǎ/

c) Responding particles used in acknowledging information

These particles are used to indicate that the speaker has followed the line of discourse. The discourse must be a string of statements that contain no questions, or at most, there may be some questions which need no answer. Responding particles used in this manner are normally spoken in a low voice and may be repeated now and then during the flow of speech that contains a sequence of information.

The terms to be used in this function are the same as those used in answering a command or order in an ordinary speech style. In Royal Terminology, however, the terms to be used are the same as those for the answering of a call.

d) Responding particles used in answering a Yes/No question

Responding particles supply answers of the 'So/Not so' type. If the terms of the question may stand as the answer, i.e.

* Special vocabulary required when speaking to a monk is traditionally in both Cambodian and Thai included in the term 'Royal Terminology'.

'Such is the case', then the 'So' - responding particle is appropriate. This need not necessarily correspond to the use of 'Yes' in English. On the other hand, if the terms of the question must be rejected because they are incorrect or untruthful, then the 'Not so' - responding particle is appropriate, i.e. 'Such is not the case'. This, in turn, need not correspond to the use of 'No' in English.

Other than the utterance of a complete sentence as an answer there are three possible types of answer as follows :-

- the responding particle
- the relevant part of the answer-sentence
- both the responding particle and the relevant part together.

Answers meaning 'Such is the case' may make use of all three possibilities above.

Examples in Cambodian

Positive question : //prəpuən lo:k nʏu phtsəh rɯ: //

'Your wife is at home, isn't she?'

Affirmation by 'So' -responding particle : //bɑ:t // 'Yes.'

Answer by the relevant part : //nʏu // '...is in'

'So' -responding particle + relevant part : //bɑ:t nʏu //
'Yes, she is.'

Negative question : //prəpuən lo:k mɯn nʏu phtsəh tɛ: rɯ: //

'Isn't your wife at home?'

Negation by 'So' -responding particle : //bɑ:t // 'No.'
(yes)

Answer by the relevant part : //mun nɿu// 'Not at home.'
(not--is in)

'So' -responding particle + relevant part ://bɑ:t mun nɿu//
(yes--not--is in)
'No, she is not.'

Examples in Thai

Positive question : /phanya: khun yũ: bɑ:n rɛʔ/
'Your wife is at home, isn't she?'

Affirmation by 'So' -responding particle : /khráp/ 'Yes.'

Answer by the relevant part : /yũ:/ '[she] is.'*

'So' -responding particle + relevant part : /khráp yũ:/
'Yes, she is.'

Negative question : /phanya: khun mǎy yũ: bɑ:n rɛʔ/
'Your wife is not at home, is she?'

Negation by 'So' -responding particle : /khráp/ 'No.'
(Yes)

Answer by the relevant part : /mǎy yũ:/ 'Not at home.'
(not--is in)

'So' -responding particle + relevant part : /khráp mǎy yũ:/
(yes--not--is in)
'No, she is not.'

The 'Not so' -responding particle is used for only the negative answer whether the question asked is in a positive or

* The bracketed word is non-existent in its original form but is used to clarify the English translation.

in a negative form. Answers meaning 'Such is not the case' also make use of all three possibilities, i.e.

- (i) 'Not so' -responding particle
- (ii) the relevant part of the answer-sentence
- (iii) 'Not so' -responding particle with the relevant part.

Examples in Cambodian

Positive question : //nɛək ni:əŋ kəmpuŋ tɛ de: ʔɑ:v ru: //

'You are sewing a blouse, aren't you?'

Negation by 'Not so' -responding particle : //te: // 'No.'

Answer by the relevant part : //mun de: te: //

'Not sewing'

'Not so' -responding particle + relevant part : //te: mun de: te: //

'No, I am not sewing'

Negative question : //nɛək ni:əŋ mun de: ʔɑ:v ru: te: //

'You are not sewing a blouse, are you?'

Negation by 'Not so' -responding particle : //te: // 'No.'

Answer by the relevant part : //mun de: te: //

'Not sewing.'

'Not so' -responding particle + relevant part : //te: mun de: te: //

'No, I am not sewing.'

Examples in Thai

Positive question : /khun kamləŋ yép sŭə ré?/

'You are sewing a blouse, aren't you?'

Negation by 'Not so' -responding particle : /plǎ:w/ 'No.'

Answer by the relevant part : /mây dâŋ yép/

'Not sewing.'

'Not so' -responding particle + relevant part : /plâ:w mây dâ y yép/
 'No, I am not sewing

Negative question : /khun mây dâ y yép sê ré?/

'You are not sewing a blouse, are you?'

Negation by 'Not so' -responding particle : /plâ:w/ 'No.'

Answer by the relevant part : /mây dâ y yép/
 'Not sewing.'

'Not so' -responding particle + relevant part : /plâ:w mây dâ y yép/
 'No, I am not sewing.

In Cambodian, affirmative answers to negative questions can be given by the use of an emphatic responding particle, which will be discussed in B.2, as being characteristic only of the Cambodian language. In Thai, this does not involve responding particles since the relevant part of the answer-sentence must be used.

It has to be noted here that the use of 'Not so' -responding particle instead of a full answer in both languages is regarded as an impolite form of answer, and the 'polite word' must therefore be added. Polite words in Thai are certain types of final particles, which are dealt with in Section A.9 of Chapter VII, whereas in Cambodian they are initiating expressions and responding particles of type II, which are discussed above in A.4 and below in B.1, respectively.

B. GRAMMATICAL DIFFERENCES OF ISOLATIVES

1. Responding Particles II

The isolatives to be classed as Responding Particles II are those used in answering 'informative questions' in Cambodian only. Informative questions are questions other than the Yes/No type. The responding particles of type II cannot be meaningfully translated into English. Cambodian particles of this type merely show that the speaker hears the question and is about to answer; but, since it would not sound proper and polite to give just an answer to the question, one of the type II responding particles is used to head the answer, and the whole effect achieved is polite deference as demonstrated by the following examples :

Cambodian //siəvphɿu tseŋʔəs nuh mi:ən ponmɑ:n//

'How many books are there in all these?'

//bɑ:t mi:ən prəm rɔ:y//

'(Yes) there are five hundred.'

//səmpuət nuh pəə ʔvɿy//

'What is the colour of that piece of cloth?'

//cɑs pəə lməŋ//

'(Yes) it's yellow.'

As previously mentioned, in A.4, initiating expressions in the common language of the ordinary people are used only in Cambodian. In fact, the same terms used for initiating

expressions may be used for responding particles of type II; their classification resides only in the grammatical function they perform. If the term is used to initiate an utterance, it is an initiating expression; if it heads an answer to an informative question, it is then a type II responding particle.

Examples in Cambodian

- //ba:t// as initiating expression:

// ba:t lo:k kru: so:m cu:ey prap khpom mda:n tiet//
 '--Teacher, please tell me once more.'

- //ba:t// as responding particle II :

//thay nih thay ?vy//
 'What is the day today?'
 //ba:t thay nih thay can//
 '--Today is Monday.'

2. Emphatic Responding Particle

The 'Not so' -responding particle //te:// in Cambodian, if pronounced in an emphatic intonation when answering a negative question, is classed as an emphatic responding particle. It is an emphatic answer meaning 'quite the contrary!'. This very interesting feature of the Cambodian particle is not found in Thai. Such usage is, however, quite similar to that of the French 'Si!'.
 . . .

Examples in Cambodian

- //te:// in normal intonation :
 //nɛək mun tɿu mɿ:l kon te://
 'You aren't going to see a movie, are you?'
 //te://
 'No.'

- //te:// in emphatic intonation :
 //nɛək mun tɿu mɿ:l kon te://
 'You aren't going to see a movie, are you?'
 //te://
 'Yes, why not!'

CHAPTER V
LEXICAL COMPARISON OF ISOLATIVES

Words and expressions used as isolatives in Cambodian and Thai are paired for each sub-class of isolatives in order to show the similarities and differences in their grammatical functions, their origins, and their lexical meanings. The comparative study yields the following findings :

(i) All isolatives fall under Instance 1 : SG SO SL, Instance 3 : SG DO SL, or Instance 4 : SG DO DL.

(ii) Instance 2 : SG SO DL does not occur.

For convenience of reference, the occurrence of isolative sub-classes in various Instances are shown in Table II below.

TABLE II
OCCURRENCES OF SUB-CLASSES OF ISOLATIVES

Instance	Greeting	Interjection	Vocative	Initiating Expression	Responding Particle
1	Abundant	Moderate	Few	Abundant	Few
2	-	-	-	-	-
3	Few	Moderate	Very rare	-	Abundant
4	-	Abundant	Few	Abundant	Few

A. GREETINGS

1. Instance 1 : SG SO SL

Greetings in both Cambodian and Thai are mostly words stemming from common origins and having the same lexical meanings. Some greetings in Cambodian and Thai are expressions formed by words of different origins but they are still regarded as SO if they comprise one or two members whose origins are the same.

Cambodian //su:əsɔvɯ// 'Good morning, Good day, etc.'

Thai /səwàtdi:/ 'Good morning, Good day, etc.'

The word /səwàtdi:/ in Thai was introduced into the language for use as a greeting corresponding to the English greeting words of 'Good morning, Good afternoon, Good evening, Good day, etc.' by Phraya Upakit Silpasarn in about 1941 *. The word /səwàtdi:/ is, in fact, derived from the Sanskrit word SU-ASTI meaning 'prosperity'. Previously, greetings in Thai were in the form of sentences such as :

/pay nǎy mə:/ 'Where have you been?'

/pay nǎy/ 'Where are you going?'

/səbɑ:y di: rú?/ 'How are you?'

These greeting sentences have come to be regarded since Phraya Upakit Silpasarn's time as conventional questions requiring no specific or detailed answers.

* See Reference 24.

The origin of the Cambodian //su:əsɖy/ is also SU-ASTI which occurs in Old Khmer. No date can be given for its first use as a greeting. Huffman in his Ph.D. thesis (Huffman 1967)²⁵ wrongly analysed the word as a compound of //su:ə/ 'to ask' and //sɖy/ 'word'. In Cambodian, there are also greeting sentences parallel with those in the Thai practice, e.g.

	//nsek tɻu nɑː//	'Where are you going?'
	//sok sɔpɒɑːy ciːə teː//	'How are you?'
<u>Cambodian</u>	//liːə sɻn//, //cumriːəp liːə//	'Good bye'
<u>Thai</u>	/lɑː kɔːn/	'Good bye'

Each greeting form in Cambodian and Thai above is an expression formed by two words, one of which is the key-word. The Cambodian key-word //liːə/ and the Thai key-word /lɑː/ are in fact words of the same origin; the whole expressions in the two languages are, therefore, regarded as SO. There is no indication of the direction of borrowing in this case.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//soːm toːs//	'Excuse me, I'm sorry, I beg your pardon!'
<u>Thai</u>	/khɔː thɔːt/	'Excuse me, I'm sorry, I beg your pardon!'

The expressions in both Cambodian and Thai are again complexes of two words, with key-words //toːs/ in Cambodian and /thɔːt/ in Thai. These key-words stem from the same Sanskrit

word DŌSA; the other words are native Cambodian //so:m// and native Thai /khǝ:/, both meaning 'to ask for'.

2. Instance 3 : SG DO SL

There are a few greeting words conforming to this Instance code. They are Royal Terminology for use by a Buddhist monk in greeting a king or queen, a member of a royal family, or ordinary people.

Cambodian //thvɑ:y præh ri:əc kosəl//
'May the king be blessed with Grace.'

Thai /thəwǎ:y phrǎ? phɔ:n/
'May the king be blessed.'

These are greetings used by a monk to a king or queen. The key-words //kosəl// 'merit' in Cambodian and /phɔ:n/ 'blessing' in Thai are of different Sanskritic origins. The whole expressions are thus regarded as DO. However, these two expressions are used in the same situation with the same lexical usage, so they deserve to be analysed as SG DO SL (see Section A.3 in Chapter III).

Cambodian //thvɑ:y kosəl//
'May Your Royal Highness be blessed with Grace.'

Thai /thəwǎ:y phrǎ? phɔ:n/
'May Your Royal Highness be blessed.'

These are greetings used by a monk to a member of a royal family of Ranks 2 and 3. The Thai words are the same as those

used in greeting a king or queen. The Cambodian form has left out the word //prəh ri:əc// 'the excellent Royal--' in order to indicate the lower rank of the addressee.

In all the above expressions, the words //thvɑ:y// and /thəwǎ:y/ are the same word, and the Thai form is borrowed from the Cambodian.

Cambodian //cu:n kosəl// 'Blessed with Grace'

Thai /cərv:n phə:n/ 'Be blessed'

These words are used by a monk in greeting ordinary people. The key-words //kosəl// and /phə:n/ are the same as in the two examples above. The first word of the greeting expression in Thai, /cərv:n/ meaning 'to increase', is a loan-word from Cambodian //cræən// meaning 'much, more, many'.

B. INTERJECTIONS

Interjections are mostly onomatopoeic words. Different languages normally produce onomatopes of different sound patterns. To some extent this is the case in Cambodian and Thai.

Cambodian and Thai interjections, which can be lexically compared, fall under Instance 1 : SG SO SL and Instance 3: SG DO SL. There are also interjections listed under Instance 4 : SG DO DL, as singular occurrences in either language with no equivalence in the other.

1. Instance 1 : SG SO SL

Various cases of occurrence are presented and discussed as follows:

Cambodian //kun præh cuøy pho:ŋ//
'O, Buddha helps!' (used in distress)

Thai /khun prǎʔ chûey/
'O, Buddha helps!' (used in distress or shock)

These interjections have lexical reference to Buddhism.

The words in the items correspond with one another.

Cambodian //ʔao kām ʔavy//
'Oh, Karma!'

Thai /kām we:n/
'Karma!'

These interjections are used in expressing disappointment by attributing the mishap to the law of Karma in Buddhism.

Cambodian //cey yo:// 'Hurrah!, Bravo!'

Thai /chayo:/ 'Hurrah!, Bravo!'

Both forms are the loan-words from the Sanskrit word JAYA meaning 'victory'. They are used in celebrating and expressing joy, welcome, and victory.

Cambodian //ʔao puttho: ʔæy// 'Oh Buddha!'

Thai /phuthò:/, /phuthô: ʔy/, /thô:/ 'Oh Buddha!'

These interjections are loan-words used in time of distress

or sorrow by referring to Lord Buddha. There are many other loan-words which are the result of the Buddhist culture common to both the Cambodian and Thai peoples.

Cambodian //həy yu: həy yu:// 'in out, in out'
(for coxing a boat race)

Thai /yɯ̃:w yɯ̃w yɯ̃:w yɯ̃w/ 'in out, in out'
(for coxing a boat race)

The two interjections are uttered in time with paddling strokes in a boat race. Both are phonæsthetic, having the same grammatical function and lexical meaning. The same explanation can be applied to onomatopoeic words below.

Cambodian //ʔəo// 'Oh!'

Thai /ʔo:/ 'Oh!'

Cambodian //ʔəyɯ̃o:y// 'Ouch!' (expressing pain)

Thai /ʔɯ̃o:y/ 'Ouch!' (expressing pain)

Cambodian //ʔu:y//, //ʔo:y// 'Oh!' (expressing pain)

Thai /ʔo:y/ 'Oh!' (expressing pain)

Cambodian //ʔɯ̃:// 'er...' (expressing hesitation)

Thai /ʔɯ̃:/ 'er...' (expressing hesitation)

2. Instance 3 : SG DO SL

In Cambodian and Thai there is a small number of interjections which are of different origins but with the

same grammatical function and lexical meaning.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//mun ʔy te:// (not--what--P)	'It does not matter.'
<u>Thai</u>	/mây pen ray/ (not--to be--what)	'It does not matter, Never mind, That's all right, Not at all.'

The word-for-word comparison of these Cambodian and Thai interjections shows that the expressions are formed by words of different origins. The expressions, however, have the same grammatical function and lexical meaning.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//vo://, //və://	'Go! Be off! Shoo!'
<u>Thai</u>	/chûw/	'Go! Be off! Shoo!'

These words are onomatopoeic, uttered for chasing off animals. The Cambodian form can also be used to order a man to go away.

3. Instance 4 : SG DO DL

Cambodian and Thai words which show similarities only in their grammatical function, being isolatives of one type or another, are listed in this section as occurrences in one language with no equivalents in the other. They are all interjections with different emotional expressions.

a) Cambodian interjections with no Thai equivalents

//rup//	'Off! Go!' (at the beginning of a race)
//ʔi://, //yi://, //ye://, //yi: ʔəə//, //yi: ʔəə ne//	'Well! Wow!' (expressing surprise, astonishment and admiration)

//ʔay ya://	'Ouch!' (scream of shock or pain)
//ʔao prəh ci:ə mɔs ʔaey//	'Oh God!'
//chup//, //həp//	'Stop!'
//ʔa://	'Ah!' (expressing doubt, confusion, or fear)

b) Thai interjections with no Cambodian equivalents

/yî:/	'Ouh!' (expressing disgust)
/wɔ:y/	'Oh!' (used by woman in fright)
/mɛ:/	'Well! Oh my goodness!' (often used to imply a slight protest, or to demand attention)
/ʔuy/, /ʔuy tɔ:y/, /ʔuy tɔ:y ciŋ/, /ʔuy tɔ:y tɔ:y/, /tɔ:y tɔ:y/	'Oh my!' (used by woman in expressing surprise, either real or under pretence)
/ʔaw la/	'All right now! Right then!'
/lɛw kan/	'Oh, dear!' (expressing disappointment)
/ʔu wɔh/, /ʔu bɔh/, /bɔh lɛw kan/	'Grrr!' (used by man in anger)

C. VOCATIVES

1. Instance 1 : SG SO SL

Normally in any language, personal names are used for calling, e.g. 'Smith, will you please stand up', 'George, what are you doing?' where Smith and George are vocatives. However, the Cambodian and Thai languages have an additional feature

which is common to both Cambodian and Thai vocatives : this is the use of certain particles together with nouns such as personal names or kinship terms. The particles //ʔəy//, //ʔy// in Cambodian and /ʔɜ:y/, /ʔɛ:y/, and /ʔɯ:y/ in Thai are a type of onomatopoeic words having the same lexical usage. Since any precise lexical meaning for these particles scarcely exists, they can be pronounced with variant phonemes (of vowel in Cambodian and of tone in Thai) in various contexts without the variation amounting to a difference of words in the normal lexical sense. The uses of particles //ʔy// and /ʔɜ:y/ with various phonemes are demonstrated below :-

a) Vocatives of pattern NP^{*}

<u>Cambodian</u>	//ko:n ʔəy//	'Son,...'
<u>Thai</u>	/lũ:k ʔɛ:y/	'Son,...'
<u>Cambodian</u>	//sæŋ ʔəy//	'Sêng,...'
<u>Thai</u>	/sě:ŋ ʔɛ:y/	'Sang,...'

Sêng and Sang are personal names in both languages.

b) Vocatives of pattern NPN

<u>Cambodian</u>	//kme:ŋ ʔy kme:ŋ//	'What a lot of children!'
<u>Thai</u>	/dèk ʔɛ:y dèk/	'What a child!'

* See also Section IV.A.3, where these patterns are introduced.

Cambodian //phliɛŋ ʔvy phliɛŋ// 'What rain!'

Thai /fǒn ʔʔ:y fǒn/ 'What rain!'

2. Instance 3 : SG DO SL

Only one particle used as vocative and one particle used with a noun can be compared under SG DO SL.

Cambodian //nɔy//, //hɔy// 'Here!'

Thai /nɛʔ/, /nɪ nɛʔ/ 'Here!'

These forms are particles used as vocatives with the same function and meaning in Cambodian and Thai. The words are of different forms and are therefore regarded as having different origins. These particles are very few in number but they occur very often, especially in Cambodian literary works.

a) Vocative of pattern PN

Cambodian //mni:ɛl prəsdæŋ pre:t ʔæy// 'O demons!'

Thai /du:-kɔ:n prɛ:t thǎŋ-lǎ:y/ 'O demons!'

These forms are used in literary works for addressing peoples and personified characters of equal or lower status.

b) Vocative of pattern P

Cambodian //ʔe:p// 'Hey there!'

Thai /ʔǎw/ 'Hey there!'

3. Instance 4 : SG DO DL

The rest of the vocatives are those occurring in the Thai language with no Cambodian equivalents. Their occurrences in various patterns are given below.

a) Thai vocatives of pattern NP

/lŭ:k cǎ:/	'Son!, Daughter!'
/mē: khǎ:/	'Mother!'
	(used by a daughter, calling her mother)
/phŏ: khrǎp/	'Father!'
	(used by a son, calling his father)
/khun khrǎp/	'Mister!, Miss!'
	(used by a man, calling another person of either sex)
/khun khǎʔ/	'Mister!, Miss!'
	(used by a woman, calling another person of either sex)

The words /cǎ:/, /khǎ:/, /khrǎp/ and /khǎʔ/ are, in this section, particles that make the whole expressions function as vocatives.

b) Thai vocatives of pattern PN

/khǎ: tē: mēhǎ: bō:phít/	'Oh, Your Majesty!'
	(used by a monk in addressing a king)
/khǎ: tē: thǎn/	'Sir!'
	(used in speaking to superior persons, in literary works only)

c) Thai vocatives of pattern NPN

There exists a particular type of poem in Thai, in which the particle /ʔv:y/ or /ʔʔ:y/ plays an important rôle as a vocative in poetry. This type of poem is called Bot Dòk Sòi ; a poem of four lines in one stanza, with two sections per line.

The first section of the first line in each stanza must begin with a disyllabic word or two monosyllabic words. The former can be called a couplet, and the latter a twosome. A couplet or a twosome in this type of poetry is expanded into a quadruplet or a foursome* by the use of the particle /ʔv:y/ or /ʔʕ:y/ as demonstrated below :

/rót soŋ/ meaning 'chariot' is expanded into poetic vocative
/rót ʔv:y rót soŋ/.

/mót dɛ:ŋ/ meaning 'red ant' is expanded into poetic vocative
/mót ʔʕ:y mót dɛ:ŋ/.

d) Thai vocatives of pattern P

/ʔv: nî: nêʔ/, /nî: nêʔ/ 'Here!, Look here!'

/câw khâ: .../ 'Attention!...'

(used for calling a group of people's
attention, in the olden days)

D. INITIATING EXPRESSIONS

1. Instance 1 : SG SO SL

As already pointed out in A.4 of Chapter IV of the grammatical comparison, initiating expressions of the same grammatical usage in Cambodian and Thai are those of Royal Terminology. The Thais use initiating expressions only to address a king or queen whereas the Cambodians regard the usage of initiating expressions as a necessity

* See also Section XIII.E.

whether the addressee is a member of the royal family or not, otherwise, their utterances would sound abrupt and impolite. There are a number of similar initiating expressions in the two languages which are used only for writing a formal letter to a member of the royal family as well as to a Buddhist monk. The forms used in such cases are, however, not exactly alike. They are designated as belonging to Instance 1 : SG SO SL on the basis that the corresponding key-words or a number of key-words in the expressions, the usages of the expressions, and the over-all meanings of the expressions are very similar. The following examples are presented with underlined key-words for convenience of comparison. The translations are given almost word-for-word and therefore should not be taken as English equivalents.

a) Initiating expression used to address a member of royal family of Rank 1

Cambodian //so:m prəh tæcseh dɔmkɔl lɿ: tbo:ŋ so:m prəh
ri:ɛcti:ən kra:p bəŋkum tu:l prəh kəruna: ci:e
ʔomcəs ci:vut so:m truəŋ cri:əp kraom lʔo:ŋ
thu:li: prəh bə:t//

'May Your Majesty's power be over the crown of my head, may Your Majesty kindly grant me to request Your Majesty, the Master of Lives, to take notice of the dust under the auspicious feet.'

Thai /khǎ: de:chá? fǎ: ləʔo:ŋ thúli: phrá? bǎ:t pòk klǎ:w
 pòk krəmôm khǎ: phrá? phútthecǎw khǎ: phrá?
 rǎ:tchəthǎ:n phrá? bə:rommərǎ:tchəwəro:kǎ:t krǎ:p
 bəŋkhom thu:n phrá? kəruna: sǎ:p tǎy fǎ: ləʔo:ŋ
 thúli: phrá? bǎ:t phrá? rǎ:tchəʔǎ:tyǎ: mǎy phón
 klǎ:w phón krəmôm/

'May the power of the dust under the auspicious feet
of Your Majesty be over the crown of my head, Your
Majesty subject begs for the royally auspicious
occasion requesting Your Majesty to be so kind as
to take notice of the dust under the auspicious
feet, Your Majesty's authority remain forever
 over the crown of my head.'

b) Initiating expression used to address a member
of royal family of Rank 2

Cambodian //so:m truəŋ prəh me:tta: praos so:m prəh ri:əcti:ən
 krǎ:p bəŋkum tu:l truəŋ prəh kəruna: pise:s so:m
 truəŋ cri:əp krəom ləʔo:ŋ thu:li: prəh bǎ:t//

'May Your Royal Highness be merciful and grant me to
request Your Royal Highness, in your extraordinary
 mercy, to take notice of the dust under the auspicious
feet.'

Thai /khǎ: phrá? phútthecǎw ...[name of the writer of a
 letter]... khǎ: phrá? rǎ:tchəthǎ:n krǎ:p bəŋkhom
 thu:n...[addressee's name]... sǎ:p tǎy fǎ: ləʔo:ŋ
 phrá? bǎ:t/

'I, the king's subject...[name]...request Your Royal
Highness...[name]...to take notice of the dust under
the auspicious feet.'

c) Initiating expression used to address a member of royal family of Rank 3

Cambodian //so:m truəŋ me:ttā: praos so:m kra:p bəŋkum tu:l
so:m truəŋ cri:əp kraom lʔo:ŋ thu:li: prəh bā:t//
'May Your Highness be merciful, may I request Your
Highness to take notice under the dust of your
auspicious feet.'

Thai /khǒ: phrá? rā:tchəthā:n krà:p thu:n...[addressee's
name]... sâ:p tǎy fà: phrá? bā:t/
'May I request Your Highness ...[addressee's name]...
to take notice under your auspicious feet.'

d) Initiating expression used by a monk to address a member of royal family of Rank 1

Cambodian //so:m thvā:y prəh pə: bə:rom bərepm̐t prəh korunā:
ci:ə ʔomcās ci:vmt so:m truəŋ cri:əp//
'May I bless the Great King with excellent blessings,
may the Master of Lives take notice.'

Thai /khǒ: thəwǎ:y phrá? phə:n sǒmdèt bə:rom bə:phít
phrá? rā:tchəsǒmphā:n cāw/
'May I bless the Great King and the Royal Master with
excellent blessings.'

e) Initiating expression used by a monk to address a member of royal family of Rank 2 or 3

Cambodian //so:m thvā:y prəh pə: truəŋ prəh korunā: pise:s
so:m truəŋ cri:əp//
'May I bless you in your extraordinary mercy with
excellent blessings, please take notice.'

Thai /khǒ: thəwǎ:y phrá? phǒ:n/

'May I bless you with excellent blessings.'

f) Initiating expression used by a monk to address
a highly respected person

Cambodian //so:m comraen pǒ: mǒ:k prəh dǎc prəh kun so:m cri:əp//

'May I extend blessings to the powerful person,
'be pleased to know.'

Thai /cǝrɯ:n phǒ:n mǎ: yaŋ...[addressee's name].../

'Bestow a blessing on...[addressee's name]...'

g) Initiating expression used by a layman to address
a monk

Cambodian //so:m nɛəməssəkǎ: mǒ:k lo:k kru:...[addressee's name]
...so:m cri:əp//

'May I pay respect to the venerable...[addressee's name]
... , be pleased to know.'

Thai /nəmǎtsəkǎ:n...[addressee's name].../

'May I pay respect to...[addressee's name]...'

2. Instance 4 : SG DO DL

There are also initiating expressions that occur in one language with no equivalents in the other. The occurrence in both languages is in speech as well as in formal letter writing. They are assigned Instance 4 since there are situations where these expressions are used in the same manner with no word-to-word correspondences.

a) Cambodian initiating expressions with no Thai equivalents

(i) Occurrence in speech

Cambodian //bɑ:t//

Used by a man in speaking to other persons.

//cɑs//

Used by a woman in speaking to other persons.

//so:m truəŋ prəh me:tta: praos//

Used by a man in speaking to a king or queen.

//so:m truəŋ me:tta: praos//

Used by a man in speaking to a member of royal family of Ranks 2 and 3.

//so:m me:tta: praos//

Used by a man in speaking to a member of royal family of Rank 4.

//krɑ:p tu:l//

Used by a woman in speaking to a member of royal family of all ranks.

(ii) Occurrence in letter writing

Cambodian //so:m me:tta: praos krɑ:p tu:l so:m truəŋ cri:ep//

'May Your Highness be merciful, may I request Your Highness to take notice.'

Used for salutation in a formal letter to a member of royal family of Rank 4.

//pwt mɑ:k lo:k ...[addressee's name]... bɑ:n cri:ep//

'I to (you) Mr....[addressee's name]... please know.'

Used by a monk to a layman.

Cambodian //so:m cumri:əp daoy ko:rup mɔ:k prəh dæc prəh kun
ci:ə mcas so:m cri:əp//

'May I request Your Excellency, the Master, please take notice.'

Used for salutation in a formal letter to a person of a very high status.

//so:m ti:ən cri:əp//

'Please take notice.'

Used for salutation in a formal letter in general.

//mɔ:k dɔl...[addressee's name]...ci:ə ti: ko:rup//

'To...[addressee's name]... whom I respect.'

Used for salutation in a formal letter in general.

b) Thai initiating expressions with no Cambodian

equivalents

Occurrence in letter writing

Thai

/cərv:n phɔ:n/

'Be blessed.'

Addressed to a layman by a monk.

/thu:n/

'To inform with high respect.'

Used for salutation in a letter addressed to a member of the royal family of Rank 4.

/kra:p riən/

'To inform with respect.'

Used for salutation in a letter addressed to a person of a higher status than the writer.

/riən/

'To inform.'

Used for a general salutation in a formal letter.

E. RESPONDING PARTICLES

The use of a responding particle in Cambodian and in Thai is subject to the social status of a speaker and that of a person he is speaking to. It also depends on the sex of the speaker. Thus, for nearly all responding particles, two sets of expressions are available,— one set for a male speaker, the other set for a female speaker. The terms used by either sex are, in turn, graded according to the degree of superiority of the person to whom one is speaking.

1. Instance 1 : SG SO SL

Responding particles of Instance 1 having the same or similar grammar, origin and lexical meaning are words and expressions used in answering a command or request of a king or a queen only. The reasons for the similarity of the Cambodian and Thai responding particles in this Instance and the techniques of presentation and translation are the same as those previously described in Section D.1 for initiating expressions.

a) Man receiving a king's order

- Cambodian //tətueɭ prəh ri:əc ?aŋkɑ: dɔmkɔɭ lɿ: tboŋ//
 (I receive the excellent Royal command on my head)
 'Yes, Your Majesty.'
- Thai /phrǎ? phǔttʰəcāw khā: khǎ: rǎp phrǎ? bɔ:rommɐ
 rǎ:tchə?o:ŋkɑ:n sǎy klā:w sǎy krəmɔm/
 (Your Majesty's subject receives the very excellent
Royal command on the head)
 'Yes, Your Majesty.'

The Thai has an alternative form /phráʔ phútthəcāw khā:/ (Your Majesty's subject) 'Yes, Your Majesty.' which is used during the course of an audience with a king.

b) Man receiving a queen's order

Cambodian //tətueɭ prəəh ri:əc səvəny prəəh kərɯnɑ: pise:s//

(Receive the Queen's excellent command, (you are) most merciful)

'Yes, Your Majesty.'

Thai /phráʔ phútthəcāw khā: khǎ: rǎp phráʔ rā:tchəsǎwwəni: nǣ klā:w/, /phráʔ phútthəcāw khā:/

(Your Majesty's subject receives the Queen's excellent command on his head)

'Yes, Your Majesty'

It is noteworthy that most isolatives which fall into Instance 1 : SG SO SL are Royal Terminology that involves both native words and loans from Sanskritic languages.

2. Instance 3 : SG DO SL

As already mentioned in Section A.5 in Chapter IV, the contexts in which responding particles of type I are used can be classified into 4 grammatical functions:

- (i) Answering a call
- (ii) Answering a command or an order
- (iii) Acknowledging information
- (iv) Answering a Yes/No question.

The discussion below is, however, carried out under three

topic headings since the terms serving the grammatical functions of cases (ii) and (iii) are the same. Corresponding expressions for Cambodian and Thai responding particles are not of common origins, but their usages and meanings are the same, i.e., 'Yes', though in some cases, as pointed out in Section A.5d of Chapter IV, the interpretation can be 'No'. The translation of each term will not be given.

a) Responding particles used in answering a call

(i) Ordinary language

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>Usage</u>
//kəŋɑː//	/cāw khǎː/, /cāw khǎh/	woman answering a monk very politely
//kəŋɑː//	/khǎː rǎp/, /khrǎp/	man answering a monk very politely
//bɑːt//	/khrǎp phǒm/	man answering very politely
//cɑs//	/cāw khǎː/, /khǎː/	woman answering very politely
//bɑːt//	/khrǎp/, /khrǎp/, /khǎp/, /hǎː/	man answering in general
//cɑs//	/khǎː/, /khǎh/	woman answering in general
//ʔɑə//	/cǎː/	polite and intimate term for man and woman
//ʔɑə//	/hǎː/, /ʔrː/	older/superior persons answering younger/infe- rior persons
//ʔrɿ//	/wǎːy/	man answering impolitely

All but one of the above terms used in answering a call in Thai have either high or rising tone. In Cambodian all the terms are pronounced with high pitch and a slight rise at the end of the utterance.

(ii) Royal Terminology

Cambodian //prəh kərunɑ: pise:s//, //prəh kərunɑ: thlay pise:s//

Thai /phrǎ? phútthəcǎwkhǎh/

Usage man answering a king

Cambodian //tətuəl prəh ri:əc səvənvy prəh kərunɑ: pise:s//

Thai /phrǎ? phútthəcǎwkhǎh/

Usage man answering a queen

Cambodian //prəh pə: ci:ə mcas//

Thai /phrǎ? phútthəcǎwkhǎh/

Usage woman answering a king

Cambodian //tətuəl prəh ri:əc səvənvy ci:ə mcas//

Thai /phrǎ? phútthəcǎwkhǎh/

Usage woman answering a queen

Cambodian //prəh kərunɑ: pise:s//

Thai /phrǎ? phútthəcǎwkhǎh/

Usage man answering a male or female member of royal family of Rank 2

<u>Cambodian</u>	//prəəh pə: ci:ə mcəs//
<u>Thai</u>	/phrǎʔ phútthəcāwkhāh/
<u>Usage</u>	woman answering a male member of royal family of Rank 2
<u>Cambodian</u>	//tətuel prəəh səvənvy ci:ə mcəs//
<u>Thai</u>	/phrǎh phútthəcāwkhāh/
<u>Usage</u>	woman answering a female member of royal family of Rank 2
<u>Cambodian</u>	//prəəh kərunɑ: pise:s//
<u>Thai</u>	/phrǎʔ cāw khā:/, /phəyəʔkhāh/
<u>Usage</u>	man answering a male or female member of royal family of Rank 3
<u>Cambodian</u>	//pə: mcəs//
<u>Thai</u>	/phe:khāh/
<u>Usage</u>	woman answering a male member of royal family of Rank 3
<u>Cambodian</u>	//prəəh mə: ci:ə mcəs//, //mə: mcəs//
<u>Thai</u>	/phe:khāh/
<u>Usage</u>	woman answering a female member of royal family of Rank 3
<u>Cambodian</u>	//kərunɑ: pise:s//
<u>Thai</u>	/khǎ:rǎp krəmǝm/, /krəmǝm/
<u>Usage</u>	man answering a male or female member of royal family of Rank 4
<u>Cambodian</u>	//pə: mcəs//
<u>Thai</u>	/phe:khāh/
<u>Usage</u>	woman answering a male member of royal family of Rank 4

Cambodian //mɛ: mɛas//

Thai /phe:khǝh/

Usage woman answering a female member of royal family of Rank 4.

b) Responding particles used in answering a command or an order and in acknowledging information

Ordinary language

Cambodian //kənɔ: //

Thai /khǝ: rǎp/

Usage man answering a monk

Cambodian //kənɔ: //

Thai /cǎw khǝh/, /khǝh/

Usage woman answering a monk

Cambodian //prɛəh dǎc prɛəh kun//

Thai /khrǎp phǝm/, /khrǎpphǝm/, /khǝ:rǎp krɛphǝm/

Usage man answering a very superior person politely

Cambodian //prɛəh dǎc prɛəh kun//

Thai /cǎw khǝh/, /khǝh/

Usage woman answering a very superior person politely

Cambodian //bɑ:t//

Thai /khrǎp/, /khǎp/

Usage man answering politely in general

Cambodian //cas//

Thai /khǎk/

Usage woman answering politely in general

Cambodian //ʔaə//

Thai /hǎ:/, /ʔɯ:/

Usage older or superior person answering a younger person or person of a lower status

Cambodian //ʔaə//

Thai /ʔɯ: wǎʔ/

Usage man or woman answering impolitely.

All terms in Thai except those for male speakers have falling tone. It is also noticeable that in acknowledging information during a discourse, the speaker will use a soft voice with a comparatively low pitch. The Cambodian particles are also uttered with falling pitch.

c) Responding particles used in answering a Yes/No question

Positive answer : The terms to be used and the status of speakers in relation with the addressees are the same as those for answering a command as described in Section E.2b above.

Negative answer

Cambodian

Thai

Usage

//te://

/plǎ:w/

general negative answer.

It must be noted that one of the lexical meanings of the Thai word /plɔ̌:w/ is 'empty, unoccupied' and that the Cambodian //təte:// meaning 'empty' and //tumne:// meaning 'free' are derivatives of //te:// which is used as a general negative answer.

3. Instance 4 : SG DO DL

Certain Cambodian responding particles are used, with no equivalence in the Thai language, in answering a command or an order, and also in acknowledging information from a member of the royal family other than the king or queen.

Cambodian //prəəh kərunɑ: pise:s//

Man answering a member of royal family of Rank 2.

//pɔ: mɔɑs//

Woman answering a male member of royal family of Rank 3 or 4.

//mɛ: ci:ə mɔɑs//

Woman answering a female member of royal family of Rank 3.

//mɛ: mɔɑs//

Woman answering a female member of royal family of Rank 4.

//pɔ://

Woman answering a male member of royal family of Rank 5.

//mɛ://

Woman answering a female member of royal family of Rank 5.

The lexical comparison of isolatives in Cambodian and Thai under various Instance codes provides evidence for the cultural influence which the peoples of these two countries exert on one another. The sub-classification of isolatives agrees for the most part. Comparison of isolative sub-classes, with the exception of the responding particles, results in Instance 1 : SG SO SL in a high percentage of occurrences. Almost identical references to Buddhism in certain interjections clearly display the underlying culture common to the peoples of Cambodia and Thailand. The patterns of vocatives are the same, and one group of the particles occurring in vocatives (i.e. //ʔæy// and /ʔɤ:y/) has similar forms, though the polite particles which are numerous in Thai do not occur in Cambodian. The use of Royal Terminology in different types of isolatives for members of royal families of various ranks suggest that the use of initiating expressions in Thai is the result of Cambodian cultural influence, because such a practice is very common in Cambodian, however, the Thais use initiating expressions only for a king and queen and for salutation in letter writing. The use of responding particles and the meanings they convey are, on the whole, not different, and the division of terms used by male speakers and female speakers is the same in both languages.

In all, the close parallel between isolatives in Cambodian and Thai not only reflects a common ethos and culture but also reveals the degree to which common features of politeness and protocol were thought to be important in the two societies. Thus, whilst some parallels are to be attributed to the datum of a common background, other parallels are the results of conscious striving to match prestigious, 'civilized' features in one society and its language against those of the other. Isolatives, together with pronouns proper and quasi-pronouns discussed in Chapter VII below, are the grammatical classes which best demonstrate this history of emulative interchange.

CHAPTER VI
GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS OF SUBSTANTIVES

Substantives are words which occur as members of a noun construct, and do not normally form the predicate to any subject. In an equational sentence, a noun or a noun construct occurring as predicative to another noun construct is regarded as an alternative form of predicate, less common than that formed by predicatives. A noun construct is in turn a construction of words having a noun or a pronoun as its head. Substantives in the Cambodian and Thai languages can be classified into five word-classes as follows :

- (i) Nouns
- (ii) Pronouns
- (iii) Numerals
- (iv) Classifiers
- (v) Determinatives .

Each of these classes of substantives with their sub-classes will be defined and considered with reference to its relationship with other classes. Similarities of its function in the two languages will be considered together below in the section 'Grammatical Similarities in the Cambodian and Thai Uses of Substantives'. Differences will be discussed under the heading 'Grammatical Differences in the Cambodian and Thai Uses of Substantives'. The section on 'Partially Similar Classes of

Substantives' is arranged to discuss those classes which have partly similar and partly different functions. In all cases, it is the classifiers which constitute differences in the use of substantives in the two languages. It will be seen that the function and the order of occurrence of all classes and sub-classes of substantives are nearly identical except when the classifiers are involved. Therefore, it must be remembered that those classes and sub-classes listed and discussed under the 'Differences' section are different only because of the classifiers; otherwise they are just as similar as those listed under the 'Similarities' section.

Various patterns of combinations of substantives in the noun constructs are also studied so as to compare the similarities and differences in Cambodian and Thai possible patterns.

Nouns N

A noun is a word which occurs as the subject or object of a verb in a sentence. In Cambodian and Thai, nouns can be further classified on the basis of their relationship with other word-classes, into five sub-classes as follows :

- (i) Common nouns, to be designated as Com N,
- (ii) Mass nouns, to be designated as Mas N,
- (iii) Fused nouns I, to be designated as Fus N₁,
- (iv) Fused nouns II, to be designated as Fus N₂,

(v) Personal nouns, to be designated as Per N,

(vi) Non-concrete nouns, to be designated as Noc N.

Pronouns Pr

A pronoun is a word established on the basis that it can substitute for a noun or a noun construct in the second reference, Pronouns can occur in most of the places that nouns do and perform the grammatical functions of nouns. The chief difference between nouns and pronouns in the Cambodian and Thai languages is that pronouns cannot occur with attributive verbs in noun constructs: in other words, they cannot be modified by attributive verbs, whereas nouns can.

Sub-classes of pronouns are set up in two forms :

(i) Pronouns proper, to be designated as Pro Pr,

(ii) Quasi-pronouns, to be designated as Qua Pr.

Numerals Nu

A numeral is a word which lexically refers to the counting process. It is recognized in the two languages by the possibility of its following immediately the words //ti:// and /thî:/ 'place, number in series' in Cambodian and Thai respectively; or of its following the Cambodian word //cɔ̃nu:ən// and the Thai word /cɔ̃nuən/ meaning 'number, amount' (for Cambodian see Jacob 1968, p.144 and p.83)¹³. Numerals can be simple or compound words

and can be classified into three sub-classes :

- (i) Titular numerals, to be designated as Tit Nu,
- (ii) Cardinal numerals, to be designated as Car Nu,
- (iii) Ordinal numerals, to be designated as Ord Nu.

In the Cambodian and Thai languages, there are two small classes of words, which presuppose the occurrence of a numeral. These two classes of words are :

- (iv) Pre-numerals, occurring as a numeral pre-position, to be designated as Pre Nu,
- (v) Post-numerals, occurring as a numeral post-position, to be designated as Pos Nu.

Classifiers Cl

A classifier is a word which occurs immediately after a numeral; the two together form a quantifier, a complex to be designated as Q.

Classifiers can be further analysed on the basis of their relationship with other word-classes into four sub-classes as follows :

- (i) Unit classifiers, to be designated as Uni Cl,
- (ii) Metric classifiers, to be designated as Met Cl,
- (iii) General classifiers, to be designated as Gen Cl,
- (iv) Verb classifiers, to be designated as Ver Cl.

Determinatives D

A determinative is a noun modifier which may mark the end of a noun construct and characteristically does so, except where a further noun modifier follows as a sort of attributive extension, or where a quantifier follows as a sort of afterthought or reminder having to do with number or quantity.

Sub-classes of determinatives are the following :

- (i) Positive determinatives, to be designated as Pos D,
- (ii) Interrogative determinatives, to be designated as Int D.

The comparison of the use of sub-classes of substantives in Cambodian and Thai as set up above results in similarity in fourteen sub-classes, difference in two sub-classes and partial similarity in three sub-classes. The result is shown in Table III below and the discussions on each sub-class follows in three sections, one on similar classes, one on different classes, and one on partially similar classes.

TABLE III
SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES
IN THE CAMBODIAN AND THAI USES OF SUBSTANTIVES

Substantives	Comparison of their uses		
	Similar	Partially Similar	Different
Nouns			
Common noun			D
Mass noun	S		
Fused noun I	S		
Fused noun II			D
Personal noun		P	
Non-concrete noun	S		
Pronouns			
Pronoun proper	S		
Quasi-pronoun	S		
Numerals			
Titular numeral	S		
Cardinal numeral		P	
Ordinal numeral		P	
Pre-numeral	S		
Post-numeral	S		
Classifiers			
Unit classifier	S		
Metric classifier	S		
General classifier	S		
Verb classifier	S		
Determinatives			
Positive determinative	S		
Interrogative determinative	S		

A. GRAMMATICAL SIMILARITIES IN THE CAMBODIAN AND THAI USES OF SUBSTANTIVES

Substantives which have similar characteristics in Cambodian and Thai are described in this section. The criterion for deciding upon their similarities is the syntactic relationship between sub-classes of substantives in a noun construct in which noun (N), cardinal/ordinal numeral with or without classifier (Q), and determinative (D) occur in certain word-orders. Two patterns of word-order can be set up as a starting point for comparison.

G. 4 : N + Q

G. 5 : N + D

These basic patterns occur commonly in both languages. Sub-classes of substantives reveal their similar or different characteristics in these patterns, and can be compared accordingly.

1. Mass Nouns

Mass nouns in Cambodian and Thai are nouns which can be counted only by units for measuring which are classified as metric classifiers *. The classifier is a necessity. There are two patterns in which mass nouns may occur with numerals and metric classifiers, depending on the type of numeral. Pattern G.4 is now expanded to :

G. 4.1 : N + Nu + Cl

G. 4.2 : N + Cl + Nu.

* See A.10 below.

The above two patterns will be realized for mass nouns as :

G. 4.1.1 : Mas N + Car Nu + Met Cl

Cambodian //skɔ: bɤy ni:ɛl// 'three pounds of sugar'
(sugar--three--pound)

//tʉk pi: pɛ:ŋ// 'two glasses of water'
(water--two--glass)

Thai /nǎmtɔ:n sǎ:m pɔ:n/ 'three pounds of sugar'
(sugar--three--pound)

/nǎ:m sǎ:ŋ kɛ:w/ 'two glasses of water'
(water--two--glass)

G. 4.2.1 : Mas N + Met Cl + Ord Nu

Cambodian //bɔ:y cɔ:n ti:-pi:// * 'the second plate of rice'
(rice--plate--second)

//sɾɔ: dɔ:p ti:-mu:əy// 'the first bottle of liquor'
(liquor--bottle--first)

Thai /khǎ:w cɔ:n thî:-sǎ:ŋ/ 'the second plate of rice'
(rice--plate--second)

/sɯɾɔ: khùet thî:-nùŋ/ 'the first bottle of liquor'
(liquor--bottle--first)

Since metric classifiers are units for measurement, a mass noun can occur with more than one classifier, and each classifier in use is then a reference to the measuring unit for the noun.

* The hyphen is used in the transcription to separate the components of a compound, or the components of a single lexical item that would otherwise be ambiguous.

<u>Cambodian</u>	// <u>tu</u> k-tæ pi: pɛ:ŋ//	'two cups of tea'
	(<u>tea</u> --two--cup)	
	// <u>tu</u> k-tæ mu:ɛy pən//	'a pot of tea'
	(<u>tea</u> --one--pot)	
	// <u>tu</u> k-tæ bɔy səmɾap//	'three sets of tea-things'
	(<u>tea</u> --three--set)	
<u>Thai</u>	/khâ:w sǎ:ŋ cɑ:n/	'two plates of rice'
	(<u>rice</u> --two--plate)	
	/khâ:w sǎ:m kilo:/	'three kilograms of rice'
	(<u>rice</u> --three--kilogramme)	
	/khâ:w sî: krəsɔ:p/	'four sacks of rice'
	(<u>rice</u> --four--sack)	

2. Fused Nouns I

Fused nouns are nouns which have the same forms as their classifiers. In other words, fused nouns are used as their own classifiers. In the counting process they can occur singly with numerals so that there may be no apparent head to the noun construct. Fused nouns can be classified from the lexical point of view into two groups :

- (i) Time, place and currency nouns,
- (ii) General fused nouns.

Nouns in the first group behave similarly in the Cambodian and Thai languages, and are here referred to as 'Fused Nouns I'. The patterns, in terms of which their behaviour is analysed, are

not, however, always in a one to one correspondence. (See the pattern G. 4.4 below).

General fused nouns occur in Thai only and so are separately dealt with under the heading 'Fused Nouns II' in B.2 below.

The patterns of fused nouns I with quantifiers are as follows :

G. 4.3 : Nu + N

viz. G. 4.3.1 : Car Nu + Fus N₁

and G. 4.4 : N + Nu

viz. G. 4.4.1 : Fus N₁ + Ord Nu

It is in the latter pattern that the scope of similarity is out of balance, the limitations in Thai applying strictly to Fus N₁, whereas, in Cambodian, Per N may conform to this pattern, i.e., G. 4.4.1, and Com N too (found under G. 4.4.4 in B.1 below). Lexically, moreover, this particular pattern will be, on the whole, inappropriate for currency nouns and therefore no examples will be given.

Pattern

G. 4.3.1 : Car Nu + Fus N₁

Time nouns

Cambodian

//pram chnam//

'five years'

//pi: maon//

'two hours'

Thai

/sî: pi:/

'four years'

/să:m chûəmo:ŋ/

'three hours'

Place nouns

<u>Cambodian</u>	//bɤy prɛtɛ:s//	'three countries'
	//mrɔ:y-mu:ɤy nɛkɔ://	'one hundred and one cities'
<u>Thai</u>	/sǎ:m prɛthê:t/	'three countries'
	/rɔ:y-ʔèt nɛkhɔ:n/	'one hundred and one cities'

Currency nouns

<u>Cambodian</u>	//mpɔən riəl//	'a thousand riels'
	//hɑ:sɤp kək//	'fifty cents'
<u>Thai</u>	/phən bǎ:t/	'a thousand bahts'
	/hǎ:-síp sɛtɑ:n/	'fifty satangs'

Pattern G. 4.4.1 : Fus N₁ + Ord Nu

Time nouns

<u>Cambodian</u>	//khæe ti:-bɤy// *	'the third month'
	//thɤɤy ti:-buen//	'the fourth day'
<u>Thai</u>	/dwən thî:-sǎ:m/ *	'the third month'
	/wən thî: cèt/	'the seventh day'

* The lunar months are also referred to as, for example, //khæe bɤy// and /dwən sǎ:m/ 'month three', where the pattern is N + Tit Nu (see Section A.6 below). Thai has specific forms for 'first' /ʔǎ:y/, and 'second' /yî:/ in this set of titular numerals, viz. /dwən ʔǎ:y/ 'the first month', /dwən yî:/ 'the second month'.

Place nouns

<u>Cambodian</u>	//phu:m ti:-mu:ey//	'the first village'
	//khaet ti:-bry//	'the third province'
<u>Thai</u>	/mũ:-bâ:n thî:-hâ:/	'the fifth village'
	/caŋwət thî:-sî:/	'the fourth village'

3. Non-Concrete Nouns

Non-concrete nouns are nouns which do not normally occur in counting sequences. Some of them are compounds, one component of which is a verb, others are abstract nouns borrowed from Sanskritic languages. In Cambodian some infixed and prefixed forms are non-concrete nouns. Should a numeral occur with a non-concrete noun and a classifier of one type or another be needed, the classifier that can occur is either //bæp//, /bê:p/ 'type' or //prəphe:t//, /prəphê:t/, //ya:ŋ/, /yâ:ŋ/ 'kind', which are classified as general classifiers, occurring with any noun.

Pattern G. 4.1.2 : Noc N + Car Nu + Gen Cl

<u>Cambodian</u>	//seckdy-tuk pi: bæp//	'two types of suffering'
	//kɑ:-ruəs-nɿu cræn ya:ŋ//	'many kinds of living'
<u>Thai</u>	/khwa:m-rák sǎ:ŋ bê:p/	'two types of love'
	/kɑ:n-thamŋɑ:n sǎ:ŋ yâ:ŋ/	'two kinds of working'

In Thai the pattern G. 4.2.2 : Noc N + Gen Cl + Ord Nu is also possible, i.e.,

/khwa:m-khít yǎ:ŋ rê:k/ 'the first thought'

/ka:n-prədît bê:p thî:-sǎ:ŋ/ 'the second type of invention'

In Cambodian the usual pattern is G. 4.4.2 : Noc N + Ord Nu, i.e.,

Cambodian //kumnwt ti:-pi:// 'the second idea'

//seckdvy-snaeha: ti:-mu:ey// 'the first love'

4. Pronouns Proper

Pronouns proper can be substituted for nouns, in the second reference, as shown in the examples below :

Cambodian //lo:k num khpom yv:ŋ kwt tru le:ŋ kompo:t ru: te://

'You and I, shall we plan to visit Kampot?'

//nru vǎet phnum mi:en ?vvy khlah//

'What do they have in Wat Phnom?'

Thai /khǎw wâ: pi: ní: ?a:kà:t cə nǎ:w/

'They say that the weather will be cold this year.'

/sûe man khǎ:t/

'The blouse (it) is torn.'

5. Quasi-Pronouns

Quasi-pronouns may be normally substituted for personal nouns, and are used for first person as well as second person in direct conversation. In both languages, the terms which can be used to refer to first, second and third persons involve not only words defined as pronouns but also words which, in strict analysis,

must be defined as nouns and not as pronouns. However, when a noun is used to refer to the first or second person, since it is no longer merely a noun, it will be classified as a quasi-pronoun. Nouns are found to occur as quasi-pronouns in, or in combination with, each of the following categories :-

- (i) Kinship terms
- (ii) Titles and names
- (iii) Military ranks and the titles of ranks of the nobility
- (iv) Terms connected with occupations or positions a person holds.

Cambodian //mi:ŋ slo: sɔmlɔ: ?vvy te:// 'What are you cooking auntie?'

//mi:ŋ slo: sɔmlɔ: mcu:// 'I am making some curry.'

The word //mi:ŋ// 'aunt' is used in both sentences for second and first person pronouns, respectively.

Thai /phî: tham ?əɾay khǎ?/ 'What are you doing, elder sister?'

/phî: kamlɔŋ du: nǎŋ sǎ:/ 'I am revising my lesson.'

The word /phî:/ 'elder sibling' is used in both sentences for second and first person pronouns, respectively. Other examples are :

Cambodian //lo:k kru: sok sɔpbɔ:y ci:ə te://

'How are you, teacher?'

//bɔ:t khnom sok sɔpbɔ:y do:c thɔəmədɔ://

'I am well as usual.'

//coh lo:k me: phu:m//

'And you (chief of the village)?'

<u>Thai</u>	/ʔɑ:ca:n pay nǎy ma: khráp/
	'Where have <u>you</u> been, teacher?'
	/khru: pay thî: hŏŋ-səmùt klɑ:ŋ cāh/
	' <u>I</u> went to the Central library.'

6. Titular Numerals

A titular numeral is a numeral* which is not used for the work of counting at all, viz. the numeral which serves as a permanent attributive or fixed designation to a noun. It always occurs with an absence of classifiers. The usage seems to be determined by the acceptance of a numeral as an attributive, of an established numerical sum or numerical sequence, which may or may not be quite arbitrary.

<u>Pattern</u>	G. 4.4.3 : N + Tit Nu	
<u>Cambodian</u>	//maŋ pram-mu:ey//	'six o'clock'
	//le:k sɑ:m-sɿp//	'number thirty'
	//khæe bɿy//	'month three'
<u>Thai</u>	/dmən ʔâ:y/	'month one'
	/hŏŋ sǎ:m-sîp/	'room thirty'
	/lê:k kâ:w/	'number nine'

The above may be presumed to be derived from an established numerical sequence and are therefore akin to ordinal numerals.*

* See Section C.2 for the description of cardinal and ordinal numerals.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//ki:əthɑ: pœn//	'the thousand stanzas (i.e., the Vessantara Jataka)'
	//svl pram//	'the five precepts'
	//mœək buən//	'the four ways to enlightenment'
<u>Thai</u>	/thâ:t sî:/	'the four elements'
	/sĩ:n hâ:/	'the five precepts'
	/khɑ:thǎ: phan/	'the thousand stanzas (i.e., the Vessantara Jataka)'

The above sets of examples may be presumed to be derived from well-known contexts containing a recognized sum of members : the numerals are thus akin to cardinal numbers.

Remark : In modern standard Thai, numerals are found to occur without the accompanying classifiers in one type of construction, the word order of which is variant from the normal accepted pattern. Numerals occurring in such a construction can also be called 'titular numerals', and the pattern is G. 4.3.2 : Tit Nu + N which resembles the pattern G. 4.3 with the fused nouns. It seems to be the desire to form clichés, headlines or, perhaps, 'westernisms' that determines the use of these numerals.

<u>Pattern</u>	G. 4.3.2 : Tit Nu + N	
<u>Thai</u>	/sǎ:m thəhǎ:n/ (three--serviceman)	'Three Servicemen' (a trade mark)
	/sîp kəwi:/ (ten--poet)	'Ten Poets' (title of anthology)
	/sî: dəruni:/ (four--girl)	'Four Girls' (Thai title for 'Little Women')
	/sǎ:m klɿ: hǔə-khǎn/ (three--pal--hard-head)	'The Three Stooges' (a TV programme).

7. Pre-Numerals

A pre-numeral is a word preceding a numeral in a quantifier construct, which is a construction of words with quantity expressions. The quantifier, to be designated as Q, occurs as a noun modifier. The pre-numeral precedes the numeral and so initiates the quantifier.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//mɛnʊs tɛɛŋ pi: nɛək//	'both men'
	(person-- <u>all</u> --two--person)	
	//prək ci:ɛŋ rɔ:y riəl//	'more than one hundred riels'
	(money-- <u>more</u> --a hundred--riəl)	
<u>Thai</u>	/prɛmɑ:n sǎ:m wan/	'about three days'
	(<u>about</u> --three--day)	
	/krədǎ:t sǎk hǎ: phɛ:n/	'about five sheets of paper'
	(paper-- <u>about</u> --five--sheet)	

8. Post-Numerals

A post-numeral occurs in the final position of a quantifier construct. It has a lexical reference to quantity.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//ko:n-sʏs dɔp nɛək tɛɛŋlɑ:y//	'all ten students'
	(student-ten-person-- <u>all</u>)	
	//sɔmpuət bʏy mɛ:t phlɑ:y//	'over three metres of cloth'
	(cloth--three--metre-- <u>over</u>)	
<u>Thai</u>	/nǎk-riən sɨp khon thǎwnǎn/	'only ten students'
	(student--ten--person-- <u>only</u>)	
	/phǎ: sǎ:m mɛ:t sɛ:t/	'over three metres of cloth'
	(cloth--three--metre-- <u>over</u>)	

9. Unit Classifiers

A unit classifier is a classifier which has a reference to the unit of counting for each item, for each human being, each creature, etc. It is not necessarily true that a lexical relationship exists between the noun and the unit classifier that is used in counting it. The only certain fact is that collocation plays an important rôle. In many cases a feature that is characteristic for certain items may easily be noticed as a plausible ground for counting them by reference to this feature. In some cases the early stage of a relationship can be traced back and a lexical or characteristic relationship be thus explained, in others it remains obscure.

Plausible classifiers :

<u>Cambodian</u>	//ce:k bu:ən dɔy// (banana--four-- <u>hand</u>)	'four hands of bananas'
	//dɔəm-chv: ponmɑ:n dɔəm// (tree--how many-- <u>trunk</u>)	'how many trees'
<u>Thai</u>	/klɔey sɨ: wɨ:/ (banana--four-- <u>comb</u>)	'four hands of bananas'
	/tônmy kɨ: tɔn/ (tree--how many-- <u>trunk</u>)	'how many trees'

Problematical classifiers :

<u>Cambodian</u>	//ʔaksɔ: dɔp tu:ə// (writing--ten-- <u>body</u>)	'ten letters of alphabet'
------------------	--	---------------------------

<u>Cambodian</u>	//hæ:t bʏy pɾəkɑː// (cause--three-- <u>item</u>)	'three causes'
<u>Thai</u>	/ʔǎksǎ:n sĭp tuə/ (writing--ten-- <u>body</u>)	'ten letters of alphabet'
	/hè:t sǎ:m pɾəkɑːn/ (cause--three-- <u>item</u>)	'three causes'

10. Metric Classifiers

A metric classifier is a classifier which has a certain relationship with the noun head-word it modifies. This relationship can roughly be stated in terms of lexical reference to :-

- (i) the sets or groups of items
- (ii) the manner of presentation of the item or items
- (iii) the quantity or the measurement of the item by a fixed unit or number or container.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//dɔmɾɯy piː voːŋ// (elephant--two-- <u>herd</u>)	'two herds of elephants'
	//trɯy dɔp tɾənɔt// (fish--ten-- <u>skewer</u>)	'ten skewers of fish'
	//kumpiː pɾəmpɯl khsæ// (holy manuscript--seven-- <u>string</u>)	'seven bundles of holy manuscript'
	//ʔɔŋkoː piː kɑːrɔŋ// (husked rice--two-- <u>sack</u>)	'two sacks of husked rice'

<u>Thai</u>	/chǎ:ŋ sǎ:ŋ khlǎ:ŋ/ (elephant--two-- <u>herd</u>)	'two herds of elephants'
	/plǎ: sǐp máy/ (fish--ten-- <u>skewer</u>)	'ten skewers of fish'
	/khamphi: cǎt phǎ:k/ (holy manuscript--seven-- <u>tie</u>)	'seven bundles of holy manuscript'
	/khǎ:w sǎ:ŋ krǎsɔ:p/ (rice--two-- <u>sack</u>)	'two sacks of rice'

11. General Classifiers

General classifiers are classifiers which can occur with any type of noun when accompanied by numerals or determinatives. The following are general classifiers in Cambodian and Thai :

//prǎphe:t// /prǎphê:t/
 //bǎep// /bǎ:p/
 //yǎ:ŋ// /yǎ:ŋ/
 /chenít/

<u>Cambodian</u>	//kumpi: pi: <u>prǎphe:t</u> //	'two types of manuscripts'
	//ʔǎksɔ:sǎ:t <u>prǎphê:t</u> nih//	'this type of literature'
	//pǎkka: <u>yǎ:ŋ</u> nih//	'this kind of pen'
<u>Thai</u>	/khamphi: sǎ:ŋ <u>prǎphê:t</u> /	'two types of manuscript'
	/wannakhedi: <u>prǎphê:t</u> ní:/	'this type of literature'
	/pǎ:kka: <u>yǎ:ŋ</u> ní:/	'this kind of pen'

12. Verb Classifiers

Verb classifiers are classifiers which occur with verbs as heads. Some verb classifiers are phonaesthetic words imitating the noise or movement caused by the verbs in action. They will be discussed again under Section A.11 of Chapter VIII on predicatives where verb classifiers are used as modifiers to verbs.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//niyi:əy pi: <u>məet</u> //	'speak two words'
	(speak--two-- <u>mouth</u>)	
	//mɤ:l bɤy <u>cəp</u> //	'read three times'
	(read--three-- <u>through to the end</u>)	
<u>Thai</u>	/phŭ:t sǎ:n <u>kham</u> /	'speak two words'
	(speak--two-- <u>word</u>)	
	/ʔǎ:n sǎ:m <u>cəp</u> /	'read three times'
	(read--three-- <u>through to the end</u>)	

13. Positive Determinatives

Positive determinatives are words which normally mark the end of a noun construct. In Cambodian, //nih// 'this', //nuh// 'that', //ʔæ-tiet// 'other', //khləh// 'some' and //nɤŋ// 'this' are positive determinatives. In Thai, there are three terms the tone of which can be either high tone : /nī:/ 'this', /nān/ 'that' and /nó:n/ 'over there' ; or falling tone : /nî:/, /nān/, /nô:n/ with no changes in the meaning. The high-tone set of words, to be designated as Hig D, is chosen when speakers employ classifiers. The

falling-tone set of words, to be designated as Fal D, is used when there is no classifier. Thus, the pattern G. 5 : N + D as described in Section A. above is developed into the pattern G. 5.1 : N + Pos D for the non-tonal Cambodian only, whilst in Thai, for the distinction of tone in determinatives, two patterns have to be developed, i.e. pattern G. 5.1.1 : N + Cl + Hig D and pattern G. 5.1.2 : N + Fal D.

When fused nouns and non-concrete nouns are heads of the construction, Hig D can occur without the classifier, and hence another pattern G. 5.1.3 : Fus N/Noc N + Hig D for Thai only.

Cambodian

Pattern G. 5.1 : N + Pos D

//tok <u>nih</u> //	'this table'
//səla:ɛrɪən <u>nuh</u> //	'that school'
//mənʊs ?æ-tiət//	'other people'

Thai

Pattern G. 5.1.1 : N + Cl + Hig D

/tɔʔ <u>tue nɪ:/</u>	'this table'
/bâ:n <u>lǎŋ nǎn</u> /	'that house'
/biə <u>kê:w nó:n</u> /	'the glass of beer over there'

Pattern G. 5.1.2 : N + Fal D

/tɔʔ <u>nɪ:/</u>	'this table'
/bâ:n <u>nân</u> /	'that house'
/biə <u>nô:n</u> /	'the beer over there'

Thai

Pattern G .5.1.3 : Fus N/Nod. N + Hig D

/pi: <u>ní:</u> /	'this year'
/rǎ:n <u>nǎn</u> /	'that shop'
/rû:p <u>ní:</u> /	'this picture'
/khwǎ:m-khí:t <u>nǎn</u> /	'that idea'

14. Interrogative Determinatives

Interrogative determinatives are interrogative words and complexes which occur in the same position as the positive determinatives previously described.

Cambodian //siəvphu nǎ:-muey lʔo: mɿ:l//

'Which book is interesting?'

//næk tuk rəbəs knoŋ tu: nǎ://

'In which cupboard do you keep the thing?'

Thai

/nǎŋsǔ: lēm nǎy nǎ:-sǒncay/

'Which book is interesting?'

/khun ʔaw khǒ:ŋ sǎy wǎy nay tû: nǎy/

'In which cupboard do you keep the thing?'

Interrogative determinatives in Thai can occur with or without classifiers.

Thai

/sûə tuə nǎy khà:t/

'Which shirt is torn?'

/sûə nǎy khà:t/

'Which shirt is torn?'

B. GRAMMATICAL DIFFERENCES IN THE CAMBODIAN AND THAI USES OF SUBSTANTIVES

There are two sub-classes of substantives to be discussed in this section, namely, common nouns and fused nouns II. Common nouns occur in both Cambodian and Thai, but their characteristics in each language are not similar. Fused nouns II are established only in Thai.

1. Common Nouns

In general, the functions of common nouns in Cambodian and Thai are very similar with regard to their occurrence as heads of noun constructs which can function as subjects or objects of verbs. They can be modified by other nouns, adjectival verbs, quantifiers or determinatives. Common nouns are the majority of nouns in Cambodian and Thai. It is the way of using classifiers, which modify common nouns, that points out the differences existing between Cambodian common nouns and Thai common nouns. In the counting process, Cambodian common nouns can occur with numerals alone without accompanying classifiers. They can, however, also occur with unit classifiers, metric classifiers and general classifiers especially in an elegant style of writing and formal speech (Jacob 1965, pp. 148-149).²⁶ Thai common nouns cannot occur with numerals alone, they must be accompanied by classifiers of one type or another; the unit classifiers are the most common ones.

Cambodian

Pattern G. 4.4 : N + Nu

G. 4.4.4 : Com N + Car Nu

//siəvphvu pi:// 'two books'
(book--two)

//cincien bvy// 'three rings'
(ring--three)

Pattern G. 4.4.5 : Com N + Ord Nu

//ko: ti:-mu:əy// 'the first ox'
(ox--first)

//rəteh-phlv:ŋ ti:-pi:// 'the second train'
(train--second)

Thai

Pattern G. 4.1.3 : Com N + Car Nu + Uni Cl

/nǎŋsǎ: sǎ:ŋ lēm/ 'two books'
(book--two--Cl)

/wě:n sǎ:m wŋ/ 'three rings'
(ring--three--Cl)

Pattern G. 4.2.3 : Com N + Uni Cl + Ord Nu

/wuə tuə thî:-nəm/ 'the first ox'
(ox--Cl--first)

/rót-fay krəbuən thî:-sǎ:ŋ/ 'the second train'
(train--Cl--second)

2. Fused Nouns II

Fused nouns II are the Thai general fused nouns which occur as their own classifiers. Basically, they behave like other nouns, occurring in such patterns with numerals and classifiers as G. 4.1 and G. 4.2. As the noun and the classifier are of the same form, one in each pattern is deleted, and the patterns are therefore changed into G. 4.3 and G. 4.4 respectively.

Thai

Pattern G..4.1 : N + Nu + Cl \longrightarrow G. 4.3 : Nu + N

G. 4.3.3 : Car Nu + Fus N₂

/rû:p sǎ:ŋ rû:p/ \longrightarrow /sǎ:ŋ rû:p/ 'two pictures'
(picture--two--picture) (two--picture)

/pha:sǎ: lǎ:y pha:sǎ:/ \longrightarrow /lǎ:y pha:sǎ:/ 'many languages'
(language--many--language) (many--language)

Pattern G. 4.2 : N + Cl + Nu \longrightarrow G. 4.4 : N + Nu

G. 4.4.6 : Fus N₂ + Ord Nu

/prêthê:t prêthê:t rê:k/ \longrightarrow /prêthê:t rê:k/ 'the first country'
(country--country--first) (country--first)

/nâ: nâ: thǐ:-sǎ:ŋ/ \longrightarrow /nâ: thǐ:-sǎ:ŋ/ 'the second page'
(page--page--second) (page--second)

In Cambodian, fused nouns, other than time, currency and place nouns, need not be set up because all nouns grouped together as common nouns conform to the same patterns, viz. G. 4.4.4 and G. 4.4.5.

C. PARTIALLY SIMILAR CLASSES OF SUBSTANTIVES

The comparison of personal nouns, cardinal and ordinal numerals in Cambodian and Thai shows that these corresponding classes are partially similar.

1. Personal Nouns

Personal nouns are mostly accompanied by unit classifiers with reference to human beings in counting sequences in Cambodian as well as in Thai. However, the choice of a classifier for use with a personal noun is a rather a conditioned one, since such a classifier often has reference to the social or religious status of the person referred to by the noun. The patterns for personal nouns occurring with quantifiers in Thai are G. 4.1 and G. 4.2, and in Cambodian the patterns are G. 4.1 and G. 4.4.

Pattern G. 4.1 : N + Nu + Cl

G. 4.1.4 : Per N + Car Nu + Uni Cl

<u>Cambodian</u>	// <u>mənuːs</u> bu:ən nsek//	'four men'
	(<u>person</u> --four--Cl)	
	// <u>phikkhoʔ</u> bu:ən prəhʔəŋ//	'four monks'
	(<u>monk</u> --four--Cl)	
<u>Thai</u>	/chə:y sə:m khon/	'three men'
	(<u>man</u> --three--Cl)	
	/phiksùʔ sə:m rû:p/	'three monks'
	(<u>monk</u> --three--Cl)	

Pattern G. 4.2 : N + Cl + Nu

G. 4.2.4 : Per N + Uni Cl + Ord Nu

Thai /lû:k khon thî:-cèt/ 'the seventh child'
 (child--Cl--seventh)
 /kəsət ?on thî:-kâ:w/ 'the ninth king'
 (king--Cl--ninth)

Pattern G. 4.4 : N + Nu

G. 4.4.7 : Per N + Ord Nu

Cambodian //ko:n ti:-prəmpw/ 'the seventh child'
 (child--seventh)
 //sdəc ti:-prəmbu:ən/ 'the ninth king'
 (king--ninth)

The comparison of patterns G. 4.2.4 with G. 4.4.7 reveals a distinctive characteristic of Thai personal nouns in contrast to those in Cambodian. Cambodian personal nouns occurring with ordinal numerals need no classifier, whereas Thai personal nouns always need the appropriate classifiers. Furthermore, in Cambodian, in a colloquial style of speech, the few appropriate unit classifiers which may occur with personal nouns as illustrated above can be omitted, and the nouns thus resemble common nouns which are discussed in B.1 above.

2. Cardinal and Ordinal Numerals

It may be seen from the discussion of different types of nouns above that numerals occur in many patterns with classifiers,

and that there are differences of word-order in which those numerals occur in the two languages. With the exception of pattern G. 4.3, the sequence noun and quantifier (N + Q) is common to the two languages and should be emphasized as the fundamental similarity between the uses of numerals for counting processes in Cambodian and Thai. Nevertheless, the quantifier complexes (Q) in Cambodian and Thai are different due to the presence of classifiers. The classifiers appear to be more essential in Thai than in Cambodian and are used as criteria for classifying numerals into cardinal and ordinal numerals. Cambodian also recognizes two types of numerals in counting : cardinal and ordinal. The difference between the two exists solely in the presence of a key-word //ti:// in the Cambodian ordinals as against the absence of same in their cardinals. From the point of view of word-order, moreover, the Thai differentiates between a numeral preceding the classifier (i.e., a cardinal) and the one following the classifier (i.e., an ordinal) whereas the Cambodian does not, since only their cardinals can occur with classifiers. The two classes of Cambodian numerals are thus recognized here only for the purposes of lexical comparison to be dealt with in the next chapter. In an elevated style of writing or careful speech, or in measuring or counting items, Cambodian cardinal numerals may be used with classifiers, and the relationship

between classifiers and cardinal numerals then follows the Thai pattern : N + Car Nu + Cl, as shown in the following examples where the basic meaning of each classifier is given for comparison.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//phtsəh prəm khnɔːŋ// (house--five--back)	/bâːn hâː lǎŋ/ (house--five--back)	'five houses'
//cipciən piː vuən// (ring--two--circle)	/wěːn sǎːŋ wŏŋ/ (ring--two--circle)	'two rings'
//dɔmrɔy mroːy khsæ// (elephant--one hundred--rope)	/chǎːŋ rǎːy chûək/ (elephant--one hundred--rope)	'one hundred elephants'
//niːɛlekɑː bɔy phtsəh// (watch--three--house)	/nɑːlikɑː sǎːm rwen/ (watch--three--house)	'three watches'

Cardinal numerals

A cardinal numeral is a word used in counting. It follows a noun or a verb in a noun construct or a verb construct. Should a classifier be present, which it always is in Thai, it follows the cardinal numeral, i.e., Car Nu + Cl.

The difficulty in arranging items in comparable sets lies here in the existence of a small subset, in Thai, consisting of two words only, viz. /nūŋ/ or /nuŋ/ 'one, a' and /diəw/ 'single, sole', the word-order of which demands that its two members follow the classifier. The resultant pattern coincides with that for all ordinal numerals in Thai, viz. the G. 4.2 choice

of patterns. In this thesis, for the sake of economy of terms and to reinforce the general similarity, it should be understood that Ord Nu as a designation will always include the two members of the exceptional sub-class of Car Nu too.

Ordinal numerals

The form of an ordinal numeral is different from the cardinal one by the addition of a marker //ti:// in Cambodian and a marker /thî:/ in Thai. However, the grammatical class of the numerals as such remains the same (i.e. both cardinal and ordinal numerals are substantives) and their function (i.e. as attributive of a head noun in a noun construct : N + Q) also remains the same for both classes in both languages. It needs only to be noted here that the two classes are analysed predominantly from the lexical point of view with the addition of the use of classifiers and word-order in which they occur in Thai. The classification of quantitative words, as discussed in Section C. of Chapter VII on numerals, clarifies these points. Thus, //cræn// and /lă:y/ 'many', or //rœl// and /thûk/ 'each, every' are, lexically, exclusively cardinal numerals and therefore may not be marked by //ti:// or /thî:/ respectively. Conversely, //ʔæk// and /ʔè:k/ 'first', or /sût-th&:y/ 'last', are lexically, exclusively ordinal numbers, and therefore need no marker to make them distinct.

D. COMPARISON OF PATTERNS OF NOUN CONSTRUCTS

Words classified as substantives have been categorized and compared in the previous sections of this chapter to show the characteristics of each class or sub-class. In the majority of cases, substantives in Cambodian and Thai show a close similarity. Where there is a distinct difference between certain classes or sub-classes, this is due only to the use of a class, the classifier, in the two languages. In this section the patterns of word-order in noun constructs in both languages will be compared so as to bring out the syntactical similarities and differences more prominently.

The heads of noun constructs in both languages are normally nouns or pronouns, although other classes of substantives can occur as heads of noun constructs in second reference. A noun which occurs as the head of a noun construct may be modified by any or all other substantives; it may be at the same time modified by an adjectival verb,* a modifier construct,** and/or a downgraded sentence. It is not uncommon to find such extensive noun constructs in Cambodian and Thai. However, for the benefit of the comparison, patterns of noun constructs which will be considered in this section include only substantives and adjectival verbs because they occur in fairly regular patterns. The downgraded

* See Section VIII.A.5.

** See Section VIII.C.

sentences are excluded by the fact that their structure can be very extensive and complicated and that their position in relation with the noun-head is not fixed; and, in many cases, it is hard to tell whether the downgraded sentence in question is a modifier to the head or to the whole noun-construct.

1. Expansion of Members of Noun Constructs

Members of a noun construct can be grouped under four categories thus :

- (i) Nouns and/or pronouns, represented by N,
- (ii) Quantifiers, represented by Q, and are cardinal/ordinal numerals, or numerals and classifiers,
- (iii) Adjectival verbs, represented by A,
- (iv) Determinatives, represented by D.

Each member may be expanded and become complex, but it still occurs in the same position as it would before expanding. The possible expansions of the members of the noun constructs are given below.

N Nouns and/or pronouns can be any of the following :-

N = a noun, a pronoun, a compound noun,* or an
elaboration of nouns,*

* See the definition and examples in Chapters XI, XII and XIV.

N-N = a sequence of N's with or without nominal linkers,*

N~N = an N modified by another N,

N~Pr = an N modified by a pronoun.

Q Quantifiers can be any of the following :-

Nu = a numeral,

Nu-Cl = a numeral and a classifier,

Cl-Nu = a classifier and a numeral,

Nu, Nu-Cl, Cl-Nu ; preceded by a pre-numeral, or followed by a post-numeral, or preceded by one pre-numeral as well as followed by one post-numeral.

A Adjectival verbs can be any of the following :-

A = an adjectival verb, a compound adjectival verb, or an elaboration of adjectival verbs,

Cl-A = a classifier and an A,

P-A = a particle** and an A.

D Determinatives can be any of the following :-

D = a Hig D, Fal D, or Int D,

Cl-Hig D = a classifier and a Hig D.

* 'The characteristics of the (nominal linker) class are that its members always occur between two nouns and that they are unstressed.' (Panupong 1970, p.163).¹⁶

** A particle that can occur in this position is the particle //do:// only.

The noun constructs in Cambodian and Thai are built up by the combination of some or all of the above mentioned members, i.e., N, Q, A, D. The patterns of two, three and four members can be compared and exemplified in the following sections.

2. Two-Member Noun Constructs

The patterns of nouns with quantifiers : N + Q, and nouns with determinatives : N + D, have been exemplified in Sections A and B of this chapter. The pattern of nouns with adjectival verbs can at this point be set up as

G. 6 : N + A.

Noun constructs with two members (of the four possible members N, Q, A, D) occur similarly in Cambodian and Thai, and this is especially clear if one limits the comparison to a higher level of generality for the members. At a lower level, i.e., when one examines the sub-classes, one finds many patterns which occur only in one language and not in the other. The comparison of these patterns can be demonstrated by means of the following three tables, in order to bring out clearly the similarities and differences :-

Table IV Patterns of nouns with quantifiers

Table V Patterns of nouns with determinatives

Table VI Patterns of nouns with adjectival verbs.

TABLE IV
PATTERNS OF NOUNS WITH QUANTIFIERS

Patterns	Occurrence in Cambodian	Occurrence in Thai
G. 4 : N + Q	Yes	Yes
G. 4.1 : N + Nu + Cl	Yes	Yes
G. 4.1.1 : Mas N + Car Nu + Met Cl	Yes	Yes
G. 4.1.2 : Noc N + Car Nu + Gen Cl	Yes	Yes
G. 4.1.3 : Com N + Car Nu + Uni Cl	[Yes]*	Yes
G. 4.1.4 : Per N + Car Nu + Uni Cl	Yes	Yes
G. 4.2 : N + Cl + Nu	Yes	Yes
G. 4.2.1 : Mas N + Met Cl + Ord Nu	Yes	Yes
G. 4.2.2 : Noc N + Gen Cl + Ord Nu	No	Yes
G. 4.2.3 : Com N + Uni Cl + Ord Nu	No	Yes
G. 4.2.4 : Per N + Uni Cl + Ord Nu	No	Yes
G. 4.3 : Nu + N	Yes	Yes
G. 4.3.1 : Car Nu + Fus N ₁	Yes	Yes
G. 4.3.2 : Tit Nu + N	No	Yes
G. 4.3.3 : Car Nu + Fus N ₂	No	Yes
G. 4.4 : N + Nu	Yes	Yes
G. 4.4.1 : Fus N ₁ + Ord Nu	Yes	Yes
G. 4.4.2 : Noc N + Ord Nu	Yes	No
G. 4.4.3 : N + Tit Nu	Yes	Yes
G. 4.4.4 : Com N + Car Nu	Yes	No
G. 4.4.5 : Com N + Ord Nu	Yes	No
G. 4.4.6 : Fus N ₂ + Ord Nu	No	Yes
G. 4.4.7 : Per N + Ord Nu	Yes	No

* The Cambodian pattern is borrowed from Thai as mentioned in Section C.2 above.

TABLE V
PATTERNS OF NOUNS WITH DETERMINATIVES

Patterns			Occurrence in Cambodian	Occurrence in Thai
G. 5	:	N + D	Yes	Yes
G. 5.1	:	N + Pos D	Yes	Yes
G. 5.1.1	:	N + Cl + Hig D	[Yes]	Yes
G. 5.1.2	:	N + Fal D	No	Yes
G. 5.1.3	:	Fus N/Noc N + Hig D	No	Yes
G. 5.2	:	N + Int D	Yes	Yes
G. 5.2.1	:	N + Cl + Int D	No	Yes

The pattern G. 5.1.1 is not generally accepted in Cambodian, however, an example is found in a modern novel written in 1955 :

Cambodian //cipciən vuəŋ nih// 'this ring'
(ring--Cl--this) (Bondol kon pa, Vol.2, p.35).^{27*}

Another example is found in a collection of Cambodian fables and legends published in 1968 :

Cambodian //sdəc ?əŋ nih// 'this king'
(king--Cl--this) (Prachum roeung preng Khmer 1968)²⁸.

* The title of a novel or article from which the examples are extracted is given here with or without the reference page number(s); the detail publication reference is listed in the Bibliography at the end of this thesis.

TABLE VI
PATTERNS OF NOUNS WITH ADJECTIVAL VERBS

Patterns	Occurrence in Cambodian	Occurrence in Thai
G. 6 : N + A	Yes	Yes
G. 6.1 : N + Cl + A	Yes	Yes
G. 6.2 : N + P + A	Yes	No

The only classifier that occurs in pattern G. 6.1 in Cambodian is the general classifier //yɑ:ŋ//; in Thai the classifier must be appropriate to the head-noun it modifies.

The patterns of nouns with adjectival verbs are exemplified here since they have just been introduced, in the above table, in order to demonstrate their uses :

Pattern G. 6 : N + A

Cambodian //sɔmlɛ:ŋ pi:rueh// 'the beautiful voice'
(voice--beautiful to hear)

//rəbɔ:b tumnɯ:p// 'the modern system'
(system--modern)

Thai /sǎŋ prǎh/ 'the beautiful voice'
(voice--beautiful to hear)

/rəbɔp mǎy/ 'the modern system'
(system--new, modern)

Pattern G. 6.1 : N + Cl + A

Cambodian //ruəŋ yɑ:ŋ vɛ:ŋ// 'the long story'
(story--Cl--long)

//vɔət yɑ:ŋ thom// 'the big temple'
(temple--Cl--big)

Thai /krəpǎw bəy yǎy/ 'the big suit-case'
(suit-case--Cl--big)

/ce:di: ?oŋ lɛk/ 'the small pagoda'
(pagoda--Cl--small)

Pattern G. 6.2 : N + P + A

Cambodian //phtsəh dɔ: vicɾt// 'the beautiful house'
(house--P--beautiful)

//pəriyɑ:kɑ:s dɔ: sɑksau// 'the sad atmosphere'
(atmosphere--P--sad)

3. Three-Member Noun Constructs

The various combination of patterns G. 4, G. 5 and G. 6 are possible in both languages and the result is a wide range of patterns of three-member and four-member noun constructs. The three-member ones are given below with examples :

Pattern G. 7 : N + Q + A (result of G. 4 + G. 6)

Pattern G. 8 : N + A + Q (result of G. 6 + G. 4)

Pattern G. 9 : N + Q + D (result of G. 4 + G. 5)

Pattern G. 10 : N + D + Q (result of G. 5 + G. 4)

Pattern G. 11 : N + A + D (result of G. 6 + G. 5)

The combination of patterns G. 5 and G. 6 (i.e. N + D + A) does not result in a noun construct but always in a sentence. Hence, it is outside the boundary of our consideration in this chapter. Examples of noun constructs of patterns G. 7 to G. 11 are given below :

Pattern G. 7 : N + Q + A

Cambodian //sombot mu:ey chbap ya:ŋ vɛ:ŋ//
(letter--one--copy--Cl--long)
'one long letter'

//dəmrɿy mu:ey ya:ŋ thom//
(elephant--one--Cl--big)
'one big elephant'

Thai /còtmǎ:y chbap nǔn yǎ:w-ya:w/
(letter--Cl--one--very long)
'one very long letter'

/chá:ŋ chûək nǔn tó:-to:/
(elephant--Cl--one--very big)
'One very big elephant'

Pattern G. 8 : N + A + Q

Cambodian //phtsəh-chv: cumnum mu:ey//
(wooden house--not old not new--one)
'one not-old-not-new house'

//rəet-yuən tɔən-səməy pi://
(car--modern--two)
'two modern cars'

Thai /dèk nùm thǎŋ sǎ:ŋ/
 (child--young--both--two)
 'two young boys'
 /rót-yon than-səmǎy khǎn nūŋ/
 (car--modern--Cl--one)
 'one modern car)

Pattern G. 9 : N + Q + D

Cambodian //tro:ko:l tɛəŋ pi: nih//
 (family--both--two--this)
 'these two families'
 //prək mphey riəl nuh//
 (money--twenty--riel--that)
 'those twenty riels'

Thai /khrô:p-khrue thǎŋ sǎ:ŋ nǎn/
 (family--both--two--that)
 'those two families'
 /ŋʏn yî:-sîp bà:t ní:/
 (money--twenty--baht--this)
 'these twenty bahts'

Pattern G. 10 : N + D + Q

Cambodian //kəmmɛəko: nuh pi: nɛək//
 (labourer--that--two--Cl)
 'those two labourers'
 //phlæe-chʏ: nih prəm//
 (fruit--this--five)
 'these five fruits'

Thai /kamməkɔ:n nân sǎ:ŋ khon/
 (labourer--that--two--Cl)
 'those two labourer'

 /nák-riən khon ní: khon diəw/
 (pupil--Cl--this--Cl--one)
 'only this one pupil'

Pattern G. 11 : N + A + D

Cambodian //ni:əri: krəmum nuh//
 (girl--young--that)
 'that young girl'

 //rɯəŋ kəmsət ʔæ-tiət//
 (story--sad--other)
 'other sad stories'

Thai /dèk sǎ:w khon nân/
 (child--young--Cl--that)
 'that young girl'

 /rûəŋ sǎw rûəŋ ní:/
 (story--sad--Cl--that)
 'that sad story'

4. Four-Member Noun Constructs

A noun construct in Cambodian and Thai may comprise all of the four members together. The order of occurrence is, however, limited to only three possible patterns in Cambodian and two in Thai. Thus patterns G. 12, G.13 and G. 14 can be found in Cambodian, whereas in Thai patterns G. 12 and G. 13 only occur.

Pattern G. 12 : N + A + Q + D

Pattern G. 13 : N + A + D + Q

Pattern G. 14 : N + Q + A + D

The patterns N + Q + D + A and N + D + Q + A are also possible but the resultant combinations are sentences. The pattern N + D + A + Q is impossible.

Pattern G. 12 : N + A + Q + D

Cambodian //lɑ:n to:c mu:əy nih//
(car-- small--one--this)
'this small car'

Thai /rót lək--sǎ:ŋ khaŋ nân/
(car--small--two--Cl--that)
'those two small cars'

Pattern G. 13 : N + A + D + Q

Cambodian //ko:n-sv̩s khnɔ:ŋ-vɛ:ŋ nuh pi: nɛək//
(student--lazy--that--two--Cl)
'those two lazy students'

Thai /nák-kɑ:n-muəŋ nâ:-mǎy nân khon nuŋ/
(politician--new-face-- that--Cl--one)
'that newcomer to politics'

Pattern G. 14 : N + Q + A + D

Cambodian //mənus pi: nɛək sophi:əp-ri:əpsɑ: nuh//
(man--two--Cl--gentle--that)
'those two gentle men'

Thai Not found.

CHAPTER VII

LEXICAL COMPARISON OF SUBSTANTIVES

Words classified as substantives in Cambodian and Thai are lexically compared in this chapter, sub-class by sub-class, in order to bring out explicitly the similarities and differences in the origins of words and lexical meanings in relation to their grammatical functions.

The method of using three parameters for lexical comparison is again applied here. The comparative study yields the following findings :

- (i) As expected, the majority of words falls into Instance 3, namely, SG DO SL.
- (ii) Second to Instance 3 is Instance 1, viz. SG SO SL; this is certainly the result of borrowing.
- (iii) A moderate number of examples are found in Instance 2, viz. SG SO DL, in the comparison of nouns and pronouns.
- (iv) Words which are left over from the comparison are put together under Instance 4 : SG DO DL.

A. NOUNS

The class of nouns is big and still open in the sense that new nouns can be introduced into the language, and furthermore, most verbs can easily be used as nouns with or without a change in the forms. It is impractical, if not impossible, to compare the

whole class of nouns in Cambodian and Thai (as may be done for some other classes) to find frequencies of occurrence in the various Instances set up in Chapter III and already applied to isolatives in Chapter V. Such a type of comparison would provide very little information. However, the wide range of noun class vocabulary does provide examples for all possibilities of Instance-occurrence in nouns, and will therefore scan the maximum of Instances to be found in any comparison.

The result given in Table VII below shows that of all sub-classes of nouns only mass nouns are not found in Instance 2. In the list of relevant Instances that follows, a sample illustration of five examples will be provided for each Instance, where possible.

TABLE VII
OCCURRENCES OF SUB-CLASSES OF NOUNS

Instance	Common Noun	Mass Noun	Fused Noun	Personal Noun	Non-Concrete Noun
1	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
2	Y	N	Y	Y	Y
3	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
4	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

Y=Occurrence, N=No occurrence

1. Instance 1 : SG SO SL

Nouns which can be assigned to this Instance code of comparison are second only to SG DO SL in frequency of occurrence. They are assumed to be loan-words from one to the other language, or else, loans from another common source, i.e. Sanskritic languages Chinese, French, English etc.

Common nouns

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//cəŋkiəŋ//	/təkɪəŋ/	lantern
//crəməh//	/cəmù:k/	nose
//me:lom//	/pʌn-lom/	part of a roof
//thoŋ//	/thŭŋ/	bag
//tok//	/tɔʔ/	table

Mass nouns

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//kuyti:əv//	/kʰəytɿəw/	noodle
//bi:ye://, //ləpye://	/biə/	beer
//kɑ:ve://	/kɑ:fɛ:/	coffee
//srɑ://	/surɑ:/	liquor
//ʔɑ:hɑ://	/ʔɑ:hǎ:n/	food

Fused nouns

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//kəp//	/kəp/	one period of life of a world
//hɑ:ŋ//	/hǎ:ŋ/	store, shop

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//khɑ:ŋ//	/khǎ:ŋ/	direction, side
//maoŋ//	/chǎmo:ŋ/	hour

Personal nouns

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//bɑ:raŋ//	/fǎraŋ/	European, white man
//cɑo//	/co:n/	thief, armed bandit
//ti:əhi:ən//	/thǎhǎ:n/	soldiers
//phikkhoʔ//	/phǐksùʔ/	Buddhist monk
//phi:liəŋ//	/phǐ:liəŋ/	nursemaid

Non-Concrete nouns

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//komaŋ//	/kamaŋ/	strength
//prəyaoe//	/prəyǎ:t/	advantage, benefit
//ka:laʔte:saʔ//	/ka:lǎʔthǎsǎʔ/	occasion, time and place
//kʏtteʔyues//	/kǐəttiýót/	honour, reputation
//soʔcǎʔrʏt//	/sùtcǎrit/	honesty, good behaviour

2. Instance 2 : SG SO DL

Examples of Instance 2 are hardly found in the comparison of other word-classes; however, a good number of examples can be selected from nouns with the exception of mass nouns only.

Common nouns

<u>Cambodian</u>		<u>Thai</u>	
//me:k//	'sky'	/mê:k/	'cloud'
//chnɔt//	'lottery, poll'	/chənɔ:t/	'title-deed'
//rwənlu:ən//	'the cabinet'	/rwənluən/	'royal residence'
//kba:l//	'head'	/kəba:n/	'crown of the head'
//chat//	'umbrella'	/chət/	'tiered umbrella'

Fused nouns

<u>Cambodian</u>		<u>Thai</u>	
//phle:ŋ//	'music'	/phle:ŋ/	'song'
//tuənle://	'river'	/thəle:/	'sea'
//bʋŋ//	'lake'	/bʋŋ/	'large swamp'
//pe:l//	'time'	/phe:n/	'the time at 11.00 a.m., meal time for monks'
//tbo:ŋ//	'head, jewel, south'	/thəbuən/	'department, section'

Personal nouns

<u>Cambodian</u>		<u>Thai</u>	
//səhɔ:y//	'adulterer'	/səhɔ:y/	'friend, comrade'
//yɔk//	'non-human being, supernatural creature, god, spirit'	/yɔk/	'giant'
//nsəkbon//	'one who has supernatural power'	/nɔkbun/	'saint' (especially in christianity)

Non-concrete nouns

<u>Cambodian</u>		<u>Thai</u>	
//bon//	'celebration'	/bun/	'merit, virtue'
//kəmdau//	'heat'	/kəmdaw/	'blood from a nosebleed'
//sak//	'insignia'	/sək/	'rank, status'
//rəhəs//	'quickness'	/rəhət/	'code'
//ti:ən//	'gift, favour'	/thə:n/	'alms, donation'

3. Instance 3 : SG DO SL

The majority of words fall into this Instance.

Common nouns

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//trɿy//	/pla:/	fish
//chmɑ://	/mɛ:w/	cat
//phkɑ:y//	/dɑ:w/	star
//kɑ:ruŋ//	/krəsɔ:p/	sack
//rɛəɑ://	/lŋɛy/	saw

Mass nouns

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//msau//	/pê:ŋ/	powder, flour
//krənət//	/phâ:/	cloth
//chɿ://	/mɔ:y/	wood
//ksɑc//	/sɑ:y/	sand
//bɑ:y//	/khâ:w/	rice

Fused nouns

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//khæe//	/dwən/	month, the moon
//thŋay//	/wən/	day
//ti:əm//	/rǎ:n/	shop
//chnəm//	/pi:/	year
//yup//	/khū:n/	night

Personal nouns

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//prəpuən//	/miə/	wife
//po:li:s//	/təmruət/	policeman
//cau-krom//	/phŭ:-phǐphǎ:ksǎ:/	judge
//nsek-kǎ:sǎet//	/nǎk-nǎŋsŭ:-phim/	journalist
//khmaoc//	/phǐ:/	ghost

Non-concrete nouns

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//thŋay//	/dǎ:t/	sunlight
//me:k//	/fǎ:/	sky
//prəlŋ//	/khwǎn/	liveliness, soul
//khyəl//	/lom/	wind

4. Instance 4 : SG DO DL

Nouns which cannot be translated on a one to one basis with regard to meanings of items are listed in this section as

examples of Instance 4, namely, items the grammatical functions of which are identical (viz. nouns), and the origins of which are dissimilar, but the meanings of which require a compound relationship between two words in one language as against a unit meaning in a simple word in the other.

a) Cambodian simple words against Thai compounds*

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//kəpɾo:ŋ//	/mǎ:-cɪŋcɔ:k/ (dog--fox)	fox
//bəbɔ://	/khǎ:w-təm/ (rice--to boil)	rice gruel
//pre:ŋ//	/nǎ:m-man/ (water--oily)	oil
//tətɯŋ//	/khwa:m-kwǎ:ŋ/ (matter--wide)	width
//lbwən//	/khwa:m-rew/ (matter--speedy)	speed
//ruəŋvəəs//	/mǎ:ttrǎ:-wǎ:t/ (metre--to measure)	scale
//chnu:əl//	/khǎ:-cǎ:ŋ/ (value--to hire)	cost of hiring a person's service

b) Cambodian compounds* against Thai simple words

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//kro:c-chmǎ:// (citrus--fine)	/məɳ:w/	lime

* See Section A. in Chapter X for the definition of compounds.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//khlɑ:-khmum// (tiger--bee)	/mɿ:/	bear
//sət-hae// (animal--to fly)	/nɔ̌k/	bird
//puk-məet// (whiskers--mouth)	/nɔ̌et/	moustache
//puk-cəŋkɑ:// (whiskers--chin)	/khrəw/	beard
//tmk-khmau// (water--black)	/mɯk/	ink

Very little information is gained from the lexical comparison of nouns, though examples can be found for all Instance codes. The words in Instance 2 are good examples for the change of lexical meaning when words are borrowed from one language into another. They could mislead a scholar who is more acquainted with one language than the other, if he is not aware of the differences. Words in Instance 4 showing lexical differences in terms of meaning of simple items as against combination of meanings in compounds give evidence of the non-existence of certain specific terms in one language, giving rise to the coining of compounds.

B. PRONOUNS

Pronouns in Cambodian and Thai are presented in two classes : pronouns proper and quasi-pronouns. Pronouns substitute for personal nouns for the first, second and third persons in conversation. Terms having this function as substitutes in Cambodian and Thai, however, involve not only words defined as pronouns but also words which may be defined as nouns. They include kinship terms, titles and names, military ranks, terms connected with occupations or position as well as pronouns proper. The choice of terms which a Cambodian or a Thai speaker makes in order to refer to himself or others, in both languages, normally reflects the cultural build-up of the Cambodian or Thai society as a whole, and reflects the status and background of the individuals in particular. Generally speaking, a Cambodian or a Thai speaker will use a pronoun or term fulfilling the following three requirements :

- (i) Showing the sex, age, rank, upbringing and, to some extent, social status that belongs to the speaker.
- (ii) Expressing the relationship that exists between him and the person he is speaking to.
- (iii) Showing the atmosphere and speaker's emotions in a particular situation, e.g. in courting, in pleading, in quarrelling, etc.

The word-class of pronouns is relatively small, a comparative study of a whole system can therefore be carried out. When done, it gives the following results :

- (i) The majority of terms fall under Instance 3, viz. SG DO
- (ii) A few terms fit into Instance 1, viz. SG SO SL.
- (iii) Very few kinship terms belong to Instance 2, i.e. SG SO DL.
- (iv) A few terms are incomparable and are thus collected in Instance 4 i.e. SG DO DL.

Table VIII below summarizes the frequencies of occurrences of sub-classes of pronouns in various Instances.

TABLE VIII
OCCURRENCES OF SUB-CLASSES OF PRONOUNS

Instance	Pronoun Proper	Quasi-Pronoun			
		Kinship Term	Title and Name	Military Rank	Term of Occupation
1	Few	Few	-	-	Few
2	-	Few	-	-	-
3	Abundant	Abundant	Fair	All	Moderate
4	Very rare	Few	Few	-	Few

1. Pronouns Propera) Instance 1 : SG SO SL

Pronouns proper which fall under Instance 1 are those of Royal Terminology and one pronoun for persons of very high status. Most of them are of Sanskrit origin.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//ʔɑ:tma:phi:əp//	(my self)
<u>Thai</u>	/ʔɑ:ttamaphɑ:p/	(my self)
<u>Usage</u>	First person pronoun used by a monk to a king or queen.	
<u>Cambodian</u>	//prəh-ʔəŋ//	(auspicious body)
<u>Thai</u>	/phrɑʔ-ʔəŋ/	(auspicious body)
<u>Usage</u>	Second and third person pronouns referring to Lord Buddha, a king or queen.	
<u>Cambodian</u>	//lʔə:ŋ thu:li: prəh bɑ:t//	(the dust of your auspicious feet)
<u>Usage</u>	Second person pronoun referring to a king.	
<u>Thai</u>	/tɑy fɑ: lɑʔə:ŋ thūli: phrɑʔ bɑ:t/ (under the dust of your auspicious feet)	
<u>Usage</u>	Second person pronoun referring to a king or queen.	
<u>Cambodian</u>	//kraom prəh bɑ:t//	(under your auspicious feet)
<u>Thai</u>	/tɑy fɑ: phrɑʔ bɑ:t/	(under your auspicious feet)
<u>Usage</u>	Second person pronoun referring to a member of Royal family of Rank 2 or 3.	

<u>Cambodian</u>	//prəəh dəc prəəh kun//	(your might and benevolence)
<u>Thai</u>	/phrǎ? dɛːt phrǎ? khun/	(your might and benevolence)
<u>Usage</u>	Second person pronoun used by a person of lower status to a very superior person.	

The pronouns listed above are classified as pronouns proper and not quasi-pronouns, though they convey another meaning as well, because they do not occur in any contexts other than those where they are pronouns with regular meanings. There are also other pronouns proper which originate from nouns still in use with their own noun-meaning. This is, so to speak, an earlier stratum of quasi-pronoun usage. However, at the time of the investigation these pronouns are so commonly used as pronouns proper that an attempt to bring out the derivation or the change in meaning is to no advantage. For example, /phǒm/ meaning 'hair', and //khpom// and /khǎ:/ both meaning 'slave', can all be used as first person pronouns. Also //nsek// 'person' and /khun/ 'virtue' can be used as second person pronouns.

b) Instance 3 : SG DO SL

Pronouns dealt with in this section are classified as pronouns proper on the basis that they satisfy the definition of a pronoun (i.e. they cannot be modified by attributive verbs), and occur as first, second or third person pronouns.

Pronouns proper that fall under Instance 3, viz. SG DO SL,

are in great numbers. As the use of pronouns proper referring to persons in the Cambodian and Thai languages involves cultural and social factors, the comparison will be carried out in considerable detail.

Royal Terminology

First person pronoun

Cambodian //tu:l prəh bəŋkum ci:ə khnom//

Thai /khǎ: phrǎ? phǔtthacāw/

Usage A man speaking to a king or queen.

Cambodian //khnom mɛəs//

Thai /khǎ: phrǎ? phǔtthacāw/

Usage A woman speaking to a king or queen.

Cambodian //tu:l bəŋkum ci:ə khnom//

Thai /khǎ: phrǎ? phǔtthacāw/

Usage A man speaking to a member of royal family of Rank 2.

Cambodian //khnom mɛəs//

Thai /krəmǝm chǎn/, /klǎ:w krəmǝm chǎn/

Usage A woman speaking to a member of royal family of Rank 2.

Cambodian //tu:l bəŋkum//

Thai /klǎ:w krəmǝm/

Usage A man speaking to a member of royal family of Rank 3.

Cambodian //khnɔm mɔɑs//

Thai /mɔm chɔn/

Usage A woman speaking to a member of royal family of Rank 3.

To speak to a king or queen a Thai man or woman uses the same expressions to refer to himself or herself. In Cambodian there is a difference, as evidenced in the above examples. A Cambodian woman uses the same expression to speak to a king and a queen, as well as to a member of Rank 2 or 3; whilst a Cambodian man uses different expressions when addressing a king, a queen, and other members of the royal family.

Second person pronoun

Cambodian //truən kɔrunɑ: pise:s//

Thai /tɔy fɔ: lɑʔɔ:n tɕhɯli: phrɔʔ bɔ:t/

Usage Expression for addressing a king or queen.

Cambodian //prɛh kɔrunɑ: pise:s//

Thai /tɔy fɔ: lɑʔɔ:n phrɔʔ bɔ:t/

Usage Expression for addressing a member of royal family of Rank 2.

Cambodian //prɛh kɔrunɑ://

Thai /fɔ: phrɔʔ bɔ:t/

Usage Expression for addressing a member of royal family of Rank 3.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//truenj//
<u>Thai</u>	/fǎ: bǎ:t/
<u>Usage</u>	Cambodian word and Thai expression for addressing a member of royal family of Rank 4.

The lexical reference of the Cambodian second person pronouns for a member of the royal family is to the 'auspicious kindness', whereas that of the Thai equivalents is to the 'auspicious dust under feet' or the 'auspicious feet'.

Ordinary language

First person pronoun

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>Usage</u>
//khpom//	/phǒm/	man speaking
//ni:əŋ khpom//, //khpom//	/dichǎn/, /chǎn/, /ichǎn/	woman speaking

These forms are polite terms generally used in either language. They are safe terms for a stranger or a foreigner to use on all occasions. The one point that should be remarked upon is that, in Thai, men and women use different terms; personal pronouns of this group therefore reflect the speaker's sex. In Cambodian, though the form //ni:əŋ khpom// is spoken only by women, the form //khpom// can be used by men and women as well. Actually, this form is more common than the form //ni:əŋ khpom//.

For young people in Thailand, a more affectionate and

childish term /nŭ:/ enjoys popularity, even among grown-up female speakers, when conversing with an older or superior person. On an informal occasion, the form /chǎn/ is more common for both male and female speakers, when speaking to persons of equal or lower status.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>Usage</u>
//khpom bɑ:t//, //prəbɑ:t ti:ən//	/krəphǎm/	man speaking

These are the very polite forms used when speaking to a very highly respected or superior person such as a high-ranking officer, a minister, etc.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>Usage</u>
//yɿ:ŋ//, //ʔæŋ//, //ke://	/rɑw/, /khǎw/	informal terms for men and women

These five words above share one common characteristic, i.e. the possibility of performing more than one function. The Cambodian //yɿ:ŋ// and the Thai /rɑw/ are normally plural forms and can be translated into English as 'we, us'. They are, however, often used as singular first person pronouns among friends and equals. The word /rɑw/ in Thai may in these circumstances serve for the second person pronoun too (see below). The Cambodian //ʔæŋ// which normally means 'you' (paired with //ʔɑp// 'I') and //ke://, which normally means 'they', are also used for the first person, especially when the speaker feels that the person he is speaking to is not familiar

enough for him to use //ʔaŋ// (the word to be discussed later) but, at the same time, he feels too awkward to use the general polite form //khnɔm//. In this same situation other people may use //yʋ:ŋ//. The Thai form /khǎw/ which normally means 'he, she, they' may, in fact, also refer to the first person meaning 'I, me'. It is used thus among children or by an adult speaking to a very intimate friend of the same or opposite sex.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>Usage</u>
//khni:ə//	/kǎn/	men speaking

The Thai /kǎn/ was in fashion in Thai novels between circa 1925 and 1955 A.D., and is heard from time to time among men of equal status. The Cambodian //khni:ə// is a colloquial term for the first person, and can be used for third person too, e.g. //lo:k metta: prəp ko:n khnɔm bəntec...khni:ə nʋu mnɛək ʔaerj phə:ŋ// 'Please be so kind as to tell my daughter...she is alone at home.' (Troung anatha)²⁹.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>Usage</u>
//ʔaŋ//	/ʔǎə/, /khǎ:/, /ku:/	impolite terms

These are impolite words. In Thai, they are spoken without offence only among men of very close relationship. The word /ʔǎə/ is borrowed from Chinese, probably of the Tae Chiu dialect. The Cambodian //ʔaŋ// is not so rude as the Thai counterparts; it is impolite but can be used to persons of lower status or among intimates.

Second person pronoun

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>Usage</u>
//hæŋ//, //ŋæŋ//, //khlu:ən//	/thɿ:/, /tuə/ /kɛ:/, /nɑ:y/, /rɔw/	intimate terms

All of the above intimate terms are used among persons of equal status. In Thai, the choice of terms depends to a certain extent on the first person pronoun used. The first and second person pronouns are paired as follows :-

<u>First person</u>		<u>Second person</u>
/chǎn/	----	/thɿ:/
/chǎn/	----	/kɛ:/
/khǎw/	----	/tuə/
/rɔw/	----	/nɑ:y/
/chǎn/	----	/rɔw/
/rɔw/	----	/rɔw/
/kǎn/	----	/kɛ:/

It is difficult to state the exact situation or the status of person to which any of the above terms refer. It is often a matter of individual preference. Roughly speaking, /chǎn/--/thɿ:/ can be said to be general; /chǎn/--/kɛ:/ is a little impolite and is used only when speaking to a person of lower status or of younger age; /khǎw/--/tuə/ is affectionate and used by close intimates; /kǎn/--/kɛ:/ is masculine by choice.

In Cambodian, //hæŋ// refers to a man and //ŋæŋ// refers to

a woman. They are slightly impolite and can be used only among very close friends or with younger persons. In Cambodian novels, //khlu:ən// (body) is used to pair with //ke:// (he) as second and first persons respectively. This is comparable to Thai /tue/(body) 'you' which pairs with /kh&w/ (he, she) 'I'. Examples are :

Cambodian //khlu:ən ci:ə ku:li: bæk lɑ:n ?əoy ke://
 (body--to be-- labourer--drive--car--for--she)
 (A girl said,) 'You are my chauffeur,'
 //ru:əc ke: ci:ə cəuvɑ:y rəbəs khlu:ən//
 (and--she--to be--master--of--body)
 'and I am your boss.'

(Bondol kon pa, Vol.1, p.82)²⁷ .

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>Usage</u>
//kəət ?əen//	/lŭ:/, /?en/, /mun/	rude terms

These are, when not very familiar indeed, rude terms and are strictly used by men only.

Third person pronoun

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>Usage</u>
//kəət//	/thān/, /kə:/	refer to superior persons

The Thai /thān/ is more polite than /kə:/, but both of them can refer to superior or older persons. The Cambodian //kəət// is used in much the same way.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>Usage</u>
//ke://, //vi:ə//	/kh&w/	indefinite reference

The Cambodian //ke:// is less familiar than //vi:ə//, both of them are used to refer to persons in general and to persons whom

one does not know personally or whose identity is not known. The Thai word /kh&w/ performs the functions of both //ke:// and //vi:e//.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>Usage</u>
//vi:e//	/man/	general term for people of lower status, animals and objects

Strictly speaking, these terms tend to be impolite and are normally used to refer to animals and things. However, in both languages they can be used for persons of equal or lower status, giving a slightly insulting tone. They are also generally used for foreigners and strangers.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>Usage</u>
//?vry//	/?eray/	interrogative pronoun

These are impersonal pronouns with interrogative meaning.

c) Instance 4 : SG DO DL

Left over from the possible comparison in Instances 1 to 3 are a few pronouns proper in Thai which find no equivalents in Cambodian.

First person pronoun

<u>Thai</u>			
	/khâ:phēc&w/	'I'	used for first person in public speaking and in formal written statement
	/nũ:/	'I'	used by girls in general

Second person pronoun

<u>Thai</u>	/tây thǎ:w/ (under--feet)	'you'	used to address noblemen or highranking people. Note that the form is parallel to the second person pronoun used in the Royal Terminology.
	/thân/	'you'	used to address a monk or a respectable person
	/khun/ (virtue)	'you'	general polite term

Second and third person pronoun

<u>Thai</u>	/thân chà:y/	'you, he'	used to address or to refer to a male member of royal family of Rank 4, whose title is Mom Chao
	/thân yǐn/	'you, she'	used to address or to refer to a female member of royal family of Rank 4, whose title is Mom Chao Ying
	/khun chà:y/	'you, he'	used to address or to refer to a male member of royal family of Rank 5, whose title is Mom Rachawong
	/khun yǐn/	'you, she'	used to address or to refer to a female member of royal family of Rank 5, whose title is Mom Rachawong Ying
	/cǎw khun/	'you, he'	used to address or to refer to a man conferred the title of 'Phraya' - the third rank of the nobility.*

* Nobility titles arranged in descending orders of rank are Somdet Chao Phraya, Chao Phraya, Phraya, Phra, Luang and Khun. The conferment of these titles ceased after 1932 A.D.

2. Quasi-Pronouns

a) Instance 1 : SG SO SL

Few borrowings occur in Cambodian and Thai quasi-pronouns. However, the general principles regarding the terms used in referring to the first, second, and third persons in both languages are very similar. The terms having common origins and the same grammatical classes and lexical meanings are compared in this section under lexical classification :

(i) Kinship term

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//tu:ət//	/thŭət/	great-grandparents
//yi:əy-tu:ət//	/yɑ:y-thŭət/	great-grandmother on the mother's side
//ci:-tɑ:-tu:ət//, //tɑ:-tu:ət//	/tɑ:-thŭət/	great-grandfather on the mother's side
//ci:-do:n-tu:ət//, //yi:əy tu:ət//	/yɑ:-thŭət/	great-grandmother on the father's side
//tɑ:-tu:ət//	/pŭ:-thŭət/	great-grandfather on the father's side
//tɑ://, //ci:-tɑ://	/tɑ:/	grandfather on the mother's side
//yi:əy//	/yɑ:y/	grandmother on the mother's side

The Cambodian words //tɑ:// 'grandfather', and //yi:əy// 'grandmother' denote 'grandparents' of both father's and mother's sides.

In the Cambodian and Thai societies, superior persons use kinship terms with reference to themselves and to the persons of the younger generation they are speaking to, but the converse may not be true. Thus, the grandparents or parents will use kinship terms throughout for themselves as well as for their grandchildren and children. The children, though they can also use the kinship terms, find it preferable to use a pronoun proper for referring to themselves, keeping the kinship terms only for reference to persons of the older generation, whether they are relatives or not.

Cambodian //cəu yɔ:k ru:p-thə:t nuh mə:k tɑ://
 (grandchild--bring--picture--that--come--grandfather)
 'Grandchild, bring that picture to me, will you?'

//tɑ: so:m yɔ:k ru:p-thə:t nuh mə:k khpom//
 (grandfather--please--bring--picture--that--come--I)
 'Grandfather, please bring that picture to me.'

Thai /lǎ:n ʔaw rŭ:p nân mə: hây tɑ: thi:/
 (grandchild--bring--picture--that--come--give--grandfather--P.)
 'Grandchild, bring that picture to me, will you?'

/tɑ: cŭey yók rŭ:p nân hây nŭ: nôy thŭ cāh/
 (grandfather--help--bring--picture--that--give--I--P.
 P.--P.)
 'Grandfather, please bring that picture to me.'

The words //tɑ:// and /tɑ:/ are kinship terms used for first person in the first examples when the speakers are older. In the second examples the pronouns proper //khpom// and /nŭ:/ are used for

first persons.

When kinship terms are used by people of the younger generation as first person pronouns, they often give an intimate but deferential tone to the utterance. The same person might, therefore, use pronouns proper in normal speech but will use kinship terms in pleading, imploring or the like to relatives of the older generation, or to people of about the same age as his relatives.

(ii) Terms connected with occupation or position

Basically, these terms are personal nouns which have lexical references to the occupation or position a person holds. It is normal practice in Cambodian and Thai to use these terms as personal pronouns referring to the persons having such an occupation or holding such a position. These terms, therefore, change their original function from nouns to second or third person pronouns. In Thai, some terms can even occur as the first person pronoun, for instance, the words /khru:/ 'teacher', /mɔ̌:/ 'doctor', /mɛ:-khá:/ 'salesgirl'. Terms connected with occupation or position which can be compared under Instance 1 : SG SO SL are as follows :

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//lo:k kru:// *	/khun khru:/ *	teacher

* The title //lo:k// and /khun/ are often added for the polite effect

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//lo:k pəlat srok//	/khun pəld̂t/, /pəld̂t/	deputy chief of a district
//ci:əŋ//	/cȟa:ŋ/	craftsman, artisan
//nɛək yi:əm//	/yɑ:m/	guard

b) Instance 2 : SG SO DL

Kinship terms

There is one pair of kinship terms used as personal pronouns in Cambodian and Thai, the origins of which seem likely to be Thai because of the tone and tone mark in the Thai version. Their meanings are, however, different.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//pu://	'younger brother of one's father'
<u>Thai</u>	/pū:/	'grandfather on the father's side'

In the second pair, there is no tone or tone mark to indicate their origins. The Cambodian word in the pair, and also that in the third pair below, have a wider range of meaning than the Thai counterparts.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//tɑ://	'grandfather on the mother's side as well as on the father's side'
<u>Thai</u>	/tɑ:/	'grandfather on the mother's side'

The third pair of kinship terms to be included in this section is the Cambodian //tu:ət// with the Thai /thūət/ 'great-grandparents'. The Cambodian word //tu:ət// has a wider distribution

of function, as it can be combined with //cəu// 'grandchildren' to form a compound //cəu-tu:ət// 'great grandchildren'.

c) Instance 3 : SG DO SL

It can be said that the majority of quasi-pronouns in Cambodian and Thai belongs to Instance 3, i.e. the words having different forms and origins but having the same grammatical function and lexical meaning.

(i) Kinship terms

When occurring as pronouns, kinship terms in Cambodian and Thai are often preceded by a title (see also(ii)below), such as //lo:k//, //nɛək//, /khun/ 'Mr., Mrs., Miss', to give extra politeness, for example,

<u>Cambodian</u>	//lo:k pɑ://	'father'
	//nɛək mək//	'mother'
<u>Thai</u>	/khun phɔː/	'father'
	/khun mɛː/	'mother'

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//yi:əy//	/yɔː/	grandmother on father's side
//tɑ://	/pɔː/	grandfather on father's side
//ci:-do:n//	/yɑ:y/	grandmother on mother's side
//ʔo:puk//, //puk//	/phɔː/	father

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//mdɑ:y//, //mɑk//	/mê:/	mother
//ʔom//	/lun/	uncle (older than parents)
//ʔom-srɿy//	/pɑ:/	aunt (older than parents)
//pu://	/ʔɑ:/	uncle (younger brother of father)
//pu://	/nɑ:/	uncle (younger brother of mother)
//mi:ŋ//	/ʔɑ:/	aunt (younger sister of father)
//mi:ŋ//	/nɑ:/	aunt (younger sister of mother)
//bo:ŋ//	/phî:/	elder brother or sister
//pʔo:n//	/nɔ̌:ŋ/	younger brother or sister
//ko:n//	/lɔ̌:k/	son or daughter
//cɑu//	/lɔ̌:n/	grandchild
//kmu:ɛy//	/lɔ̌:n/	nephew or niece

(ii) Titles and names

In Cambodia and Thailand a person is addressed by his first name, — not his surname. This first name may be preceded by a royal or ordinary title, a military rank, a word describing occupation or position, or a kinship term in order to acknowledge the social status of the person to whom the reference is made. The various combinations of names with these initiating titles can occur as second or third person pronouns, and occasionally as

first person pronouns. The title alone can be used only as second or third persons. The names alone can occur as first, second or third person pronouns.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//lo:k//	/khun/, /nɑ:y/	Mr.
//lo:k-srɔy//	/khun/, /nɑ:ɲ/	Mrs., Miss
//nɛək//	/khun/, /nɑ:y/	Master (young male addressee)
//nɛək-ni:ɛŋ//	/khun/, /nɑ:ɲsǎ:w/	Miss (young female addressee)

Certain nouns which initiate names can also be classified as titles on the basis that the combination of these nouns and names occurs as second or third persons and, in Thai, even as first person.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//me://	/mɛ:/	Miss, Mrs.
//ni:ɛy//	/phɛ:/, /nɑ:y/	Master, Mr.
//cəu//	/cəw/, /nũ:/	Master, Miss (children)

(iii) Military ranks

In the Cambodian and Thai languages, words expressing military ranks are found to occur in place of pronouns to address or to refer to persons holding such ranks. These military ranks may often be preceded by such titles as //lo:k//, /khun/. In Thai the honorific pronoun /thān/ with the title /nɑ:y/ also precedes the military ranks when used as pronouns; the words for military

ranks themselves, on the other hand, are shortened. All military rank terms used in place of pronouns in Cambodian and Thai belong to Instance 3 of the comparison, viz. SG DO SL.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//?utdɔm-se:nvy-?æek//	'General'
<u>Thai</u>	/thân nɑ:y phon/ (from /phon ?è:k/ 'General')	'General'
<u>Cambodian</u>	//?utdɔm-se:nvy-to://	'Lieutenant General'
<u>Thai</u>	/thân nɑ:y phon/ (from /phon tho:/ 'Lieutenant General')	'Lieutenant General'
<u>Cambodian</u>	//?utdɔm-se:nvy-trvy//	'Major General'
<u>Thai</u>	/thân nɑ:y phon/ (from /phon tri:/ 'Major General')	'Major General'
<u>Cambodian</u>	//?utdɔm-ni:ɛvi:-?æek//	'Admiral'
<u>Thai</u>	/thân nɑ:y phon/ (from /phon rwə ?e:k/ 'Admiral')	'Admiral'
<u>Cambodian</u>	//?utdɔm-ni:ɛvi:-to://	'Vice Admiral'
<u>Thai</u>	/thân nɑ:y phon/ (from /phon rwə tho:/ 'Vice Admiral')	'Vice Admiral'
<u>Cambodian</u>	//?utdɔm-ni:ɛvi:-trvy//	'Rear Admiral'
<u>Thai</u>	/thân nɑ:y phon/ (from /phon rwə tri:/ 'Rear Admiral')	'Rear Admiral'
<u>Cambodian</u>	//vɛərɛə-se:nvy-?æek//	'Colonel'
<u>Thai</u>	/thân nɑ:y phan/ (from /phan ?è:k/ 'Colonel')	'Colonel'

<u>Cambodian</u>	//vəɐɐə-se:nvy-to://	'Lieutenant Colonel'
<u>Thai</u>	/thân nɑ:y phan/ (from /phan tho:/	'Lieutenant Colonel' 'Lieutenant Colonel')
<u>Cambodian</u>	//vəɐɐə-se:nvy-trvy//	'Major'
<u>Thai</u>	/thân nɑ:y phan/ (from /phan tri:/	'Major' 'Major')
<u>Cambodian</u>	//ʔənuh-se:nvy-ʔæk//	'Captain' (in the army)
<u>Thai</u>	/khun nɑ:y rɔ̌:y/ (from /rɔ̌:y ʔe:k/	'Captain' (in the army) 'Captain')
<u>Cambodian</u>	//ʔənuh-se:nvy-to://	'First Lieutenant'
<u>Thai</u>	/khun nɑ:y rɔ̌:y/ (from /rɔ̌:y tho:/	'First Lieutenant' 'First Lieutenant')
<u>Cambodian</u>	//ʔənuh-se:nvy-trvy//	'Second Lieutenant'
<u>Thai</u>	/khun nɑ:y rɔ̌:y/ (from /rɔ̌:y tri:/	'Second Lieutenant' 'Second Lieutenant')
<u>Cambodian</u>	//puəlba:l-ʔæk//	'First Sergeant Major'
<u>Thai</u>	/khun cǎ:/, /cǎ:/	
	'First Sergeant Major'	(from /cǎ: sɨp ʔe:k/)
	'First Petty Officer'	(from /cǎ: ʔe:k/)
<u>Cambodian</u>	//puəlba:l-ʔæk//	'Second Sergeant Major'
<u>Thai</u>	/cǎ:/	
	'Second Sergeant Major'	(from /cǎ: sɨp tho:/)
	'Second Petty Officer'	(from /cǎ: tho:/)
<u>Cambodian</u>	//puəlba:l-ʔæk//	'Third Sergeant Major'
<u>Thai</u>	/cǎ:/	
	'Third Sergeant Major'	(from /cǎ: sɨp tri:/)
	'Third Petty Officer'	(from /cǎ: tri:/)

(iv) Terms connected with occupation or position

There are many nouns in Cambodian and Thai with reference to the occupation or position a person holds that can be compared in this section. They occur, in normal practice in both languages, as second, third and sometimes as first person pronouns. The functions and the lexical meanings of each pair of words to be listed below are similar but the words are of different origins.

Terms connected with occupation

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//kru:-pɛ:t//	/mǎ:/	doctor
//nɛk-bæk-bo://	/khon-khǎp/	driver, chauffeur

Terms connected with position

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//lo:k cau-va:y-khæet//	/thân khâ:-lǎŋ/, /phû:-wâ:/ (from /phû:-wâ:-râ:tchəkɑ:n-caŋwât/ 'governor of a province')	governor (of a province)
//lo:k cau-va:y-srok//	/nɑ:y-ʔamphɯ:/	chief of a district
//me:-khum//	/kɑmnɑn/	chief of a sub-division of a district
//me:-phu:m//	/phû:yǎy-bâ:n/	chief of a village
//lo:k ʔæthikɑ://	/sǎ:rəwǎt/	police inspector
//cau-va:y//	/hǎe-nâ:/, /nɑ:y/	chief, master, boss

d) Instance 4 : SG DO DL

The quasi-pronouns which occur only in one language with no equivalents in the other are of three types : kinship terms, titles, and terms connected with occupation or position.

(i) Kinship terms

The following kinship terms occur only in Cambodian. All of them can be used as first, second or third person pronouns.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//ci:-lu:ət//	'great-great-grandparents'
	//ci:-tə:-lu:ət//	'great-great-grandfather'
	//ci:-do:n-lu:ət//	'great-great-grandmother'

(ii) Titles

The following titles occur in Thai only and they are used as second or third person pronouns.

<u>Thai</u>	/khun yǐŋ/	'Lady' (an honorific title)
	/khun phrǎʔ/	refer to a man conferred the title of 'Phra', - the fourth rank of the nobility.
	/khun lǎəŋ/	refer to a man conferred the title of 'Luang', - the fifth rank of the nobility.
	/thǎn khǔn/	refer to a man conferred the title of 'Khun', - the sixth rank of the nobility.

(iii) Terms connected with occupation or position

The following terms are used as pronouns in Thai only, the Cambodian counterparts are personal nouns and do not occur as pronouns.

<u>Thai</u>	/ʔα:ca:n/	'lecturer'
	/phaya:ba:n/	'nurse'
	/mê:-khá:/	'salesgire' (only in the market)
	/phŕ:-khá:/	'salesman' (only in the market)
	/krəpǎw/	'bus-conductor'
	/phŭ:-ka:n/	'commander, captain' (in the navy)
	/phŭ:-phan/	'major, lieutenant-colonel'
	/phŭ:-ko:ŋ/	'lieutenant, captain' (in the army)

All these terms occur as second or third person pronouns, but /ʔα:ca:n/ and /mê:-khá:/ are found to occur also as first person pronouns.

The lexical comparison of pronouns in the Cambodian and Thai languages shows a remarkable similarity in their usages. The cultural background as reflected in the terms and in the manner of their usages conditions a subtle blend of pronominal implications appreciated by speakers of both. In both languages, quasi-pronouns are in common use, certainly as much so as pronouns proper. The sub-divisions in the two languages are correspondingly parallel and the effects produced by the choice of quasi-pronouns or pronouns proper appear to be the same. However, not many of these corresponding words are of the same origin, as evidenced in the previous discussion of Instance 1.

C. NUMERALS

The numerals in Cambodian and Thai consist of numeral-names as well as quantitative words. There are 22 numeral-names in Cambodian and 19 names in Thai. They are shown below in ascending values :

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//so:n//	/sǔ:n/	zero, nil
-	/ʔèt/	one
-	/yî:/	two
//mu:əy//	/nũŋ/, /nũŋ/	one
//pi://	/sǔ:ŋ/	two
//bɤy//	/sǔ:m/	three
//bu:ən//	/sî:/	four
//prəm//	/hǎ:/	five
-	/hǎk/	six
-	/cèt/	seven
-	/pɛ:t/	eight
-	/kǎ:w/	nine
//dɔp//	/sîp/	ten
//dɔndɔp//	-	-teen
//phey//	-	twenty

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//sɑ:msɤp// *	-	thirty
//sɑesɤp//	-	forty
//hɑ:sɤp//	-	fifty
//hoksɤp//	-	sixty
//cɤtsɤp//	-	seventy
//pɑetsɤp//	-	eighty
//kɑusɤp//	-	ninety
//rɔ:y//	/rɔ̌:y/	hundred
//pɔ̌ən//	/phan/	thousand
//mɤ:n//	/mɔ̌:n/	ten thousand
//sɑen//	/sɛ̌:n/	hundred thousand
//li:ən//	/lɛ̌:n/	million
//kɑot//	/kɔ̌:t/	ten million

The quantitative words do not, with the exception of a few Sanskritic loans and few Thai words, denote an exact number, but they mostly occur in the same positions as numerals and replace numerals in many cases. The quantitative words in Cambodian and

* The Cambodian numerals //sɑ:msɤp// 'thirty', //sɑesɤp// 'forty' and so on to //kɑusɤp// 'ninety' are borrowed from Thai, and are considered as single items instead of compounds of two numerals as in the Thai case, since each of these terms is used as one name of a numeral, and there is no possibility of separating the two constituent syllables from one another.

Thai are listed below :

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//ponma:n//	/kî:/	how many, how much
//craen//	/lǎ:y/	many
//rɔəl//	/thúk/	every, each, all
//rɔəp-rɔ:y//, //rɔəp-craen//	/nǎp-rɔ:y/, /nǎp-rɔ:y-rɔ:y/	plenty
//mun-ponma:n//	/mây-thâwrây/, /mây kî:/	not many
//kɔnlah//	/khrân/	half
//ʔəs//	/mòt/	all
//tsəŋ-ʔəs//	/tháŋ-mòt/	all
//tsəŋ-lá:y//	/tháŋ-lǎ:y/	all
//ti:-bɔmphot//	/sùt-thá:y/	last
//buen-dəp//	-	several
//mun-tec//	/mây-nɔ:y/	plenty
//tec//	/nɔ:y/	few
//khlah//	/bá:ŋ/	some
-	/diəw/	single
//ʔæk//	/ʔè:k/	first, one
//to://	/tho://	second, two
//trɔy//	/tri://	third, three
//cattəwá://	/càttəwá:/	fourth, four
-	/rɛ:k/	first
-	/ʔá:y/	first

Two or more numeral-names in Cambodian and Thai can be combined to form a new numeral, the value of which is determined by the order of the names in use. The value of a unit numeral-name and that of another succeeding name of the hundreds, thousands, etc. in both languages and in Thai, the tens, are to be multiplied together to give the resultant value of the combination. The value of a unit numeral-name and that of the preceding name of the tens, hundreds, etc., in both languages, and of the five in Cambodian, are to be added together to give the resultant value of the combination.* If X_0 denotes a numeral-name of the tens, hundreds, etc., and X denotes a unit numeral-name, there will be two rules governing the building up of compound numerals in Cambodian and Thai

(i) $X X_0 = X$ is multiplied by X_0

(ii) $X_0 X = X_0 + X$

Examples of rule (i)

Cambodian //pi: pœn// = [2 1000], = [2 x 1000]
= [2000]

'two thousand'

Thai /sɔːŋ phan/ = [2 1000], [2 x 1000]
= [2000]

'two thousand'

* Cambodian alternative form of X_0 //dondop// '-teen' is an exception, see C.2c below.

Thai /sɔ̌:ŋ phan sɪ̌: rɔ̌:y yɪ̌:* sɪ̌p ʔɛ̌t**/
 = [2 10000 4 100 2 10 1]
 = [(2 x 1000) + (4 x 100) + (2 x 10) + 1]
 = [2000 + 400 + 20 + 1]
 = [2421]

Table IX below shows the frequency of occurrences of the four sub-classes of numerals under various Instance codes of comparative study. The titular numerals are not included in the comparison below, except for few Sanskritic loans under Instance 1 of ordinal numerals, because the words coincide with cardinal or ordinal numerals. The detailed treatment of each Instance follows the table.

TABLE IX
 OCCURRENCES OF SUB-CLASSES OF NUMERALS

Instance	Pre-Numeral	Cardinal Numeral	Ordinal Numeral	Post-Numeral
1	Few	Moderate	Moderate	-
2	-	-	-	-
3	Moderate	Abundant	-	Few
4	Few	Few	-	-

* The word /yɪ̌:/ is used instead of /sɔ̌:ŋ/ 'two' when preceding the word /sɪ̌p/ 'ten', thus /sɔ̌:ŋ sɪ̌p/ is realized as /yɪ̌: sɪ̌p/ 'twenty'.

** The Thai word /ʔɛ̌t/ is used instead of /nɯ̌ŋ/ 'one' when succeeding numeral names of tens, hundreds, etc.

1. Pre-Numeralsa) Instance 1 : SG SO SL

Two pairs of pre-numerals can be compared in this section. The phonological evidence of tone and tone mark proves them to be borrowed from Thai into Cambodian.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//tæ//	/tɛː/	only
//tɛŋ//	/thɛŋ/	all, all of, the whole of

b) Instance 3 : SG DO SL

The Cambodian and Thai pre-numerals which are the results of the comparisons for SG DO SL are the following :-

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//ci:əŋ//	/kwɛː/	more than
//prəhæɛl//	/prəmə:n/	about, around
//dɔl//	/thɔŋ/	up to
//nɻu-tæ//	/phi:əŋ/	only
//cwt//	/kwɛp/	nearly, near to

c) Instance 4 : SG DO DL

The Thai pre-numerals which have no equivalent forms in Cambodian are listed here.

<u>Thai</u>	/ʔi:k/	'and, again, more'
	/sɔk/, /sɔk/	'about, around'

2. Cardinal Numerals

a) Instance 1 : SG SO SL

The cardinal numerals in Cambodian and Thai which have the characteristics of Instance 1, namely, the same grammatical function, common origin and same lexical meaning, are all loan-words; one of which is a loan in the Cambodian and Thai languages from Sanskrit, whilst the others are known to be loans from Thai into Cambodian. The borrowing took place between the 12th and the 17th century (Jacob 1965, p.144) ²⁶.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//sa:msɿp//	/sǎ:m-sɿp/	thirty
//saesɿp//	/sǎ:-sɿp/	forty
//ha:sɿp//	/hǎ:-sɿp/	fifty
//hoksɿp//	/hòk-sɿp/	sixty
//cɿtsɿp//	/cèt-sɿp/	seventy
//pǎetsɿp//	/pǎ:t-sɿp/	eighty
//kǎusɿp//	/kǎ:w-sɿp/	ninety
//rɔ:y//	/rǔ:y/	hundred
//pǎen//	/phan/	thousand
//mɿ:n//	/mù:n/	ten thousand
//sǎen//	/sǎ:n/	hundred thousand
//li:en//	/lǎ:n/	million
//kǎot//	/kò:t/	ten million

The last pair of words //kəot// and //kò:t// originates from a Sanskrit word KŌTI 'ten million'. They are hardly used in the modern standard languages of Cambodian and Thai in counting. In Thai, it is often used in a figurative speech to mean 'extraordinarily large quantity'. In modern Cambodian novels, it can be used to give an extravagant effect.

Cambodian //cəŋ nəək nə: mu:əy məŋ dəp kəot cum kə: dəy...//
 'Though others want to have a hundred million rounds in one hour...' (Sambok et meba, p.6)³⁰

Thai /wǎnní: mi: khon pǎy-thíew ɲa:n tǎŋ kò:t/
 'Today, there are plenty of people going to the fair.'

b) Instance 3 : SG DO SL

The basic terms for counting in Cambodian and Thai conform, in a good number of cases, to the Instance code 3 : SG DO SL, namely, different words of the same grammatical function and lexical meaning.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
//mu:əy//	/nǔn/	one
//pi://	/sǎ:ŋ/	two
//bɤy//	/sǎ:m/	three
//bu:ən//	/sǐ:/	four
//prəm//	/hǎ:/	five
//dəp//	/sǐp/	ten

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//prəm-mu:əy//	/hòk/	six
//prəm-pwɪl//	/cèt/	seven
//prəm-bɔ̃y//	/pè:t/	eight
//prəm-bu:ən//	/kə:w/	nine
//məphey//	/yî:-sîp/	twenty

Some quantitative words can also be included in this section as follows :

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//ponmɑ:n//	/kî:/	how much, how many
//cræn//	/lǎ:y/	many
//rəəl//	/thúk/	each, every, all
//kənlah//	/khrŭŋ/	half
//tec//	/nɔ̃:y/	few
//mun-ponmɑ:n//	/mây-kî:/	few, not many
//mun-tec//	/mây-nɔ̃:y/	quite a lot, plenty

c) Instance 4 : SG DO DL

There are a few cardinal numerals occurring in Cambodian only with no equivalents in Thai.

The Cambodian word //dəndəp// 'teen' occurs in composition with the cardinal numerals 1 to 9 to denote the numbers 11 to 19.

For numbers 13 to 19, the Cambodian //dondɔp// is used in the same manner as the English word '-teen', for example :

<u>Cambodian</u>	//mu:ɛy-dondɔp//	'eleven'
	//pi:-dondɔp//	'twelve'
	//bɤy-dondɔp//	'thirteen'
	//bu:ən-dondɔp//	'fourteen'
	//prəm-bu:ən-dondɔp//	'nineteen'

These compound numerals, however, have alternative forms which are more popular; they are compound numerals involving the word //dɔp// and another following numeral, for example :

<u>Cambodian</u>	//dɔp-mu:ɛy//	'eleven'
	//dɔp-pi://	'twelve'
	//dɔp-bɤy//	'thirteen'
	//dɔp-bu:ən//	'fourteen'
	//dɔp-prəm-bu:ən//	'nineteen'

3. Ordinal Numerals

Instance 1 : SG SO SL

The forming of ordinal numerals in Cambodian and Thai is by means of prefixing the key-words //ti:// and /thɨ:/, which have the function of ordinalizing the succeeding numerals. The key-words //ti:// and /thɨ:/ are regarded as words of common origin and with the same grammatical function and lexical meaning, possibly a loan from Thai into Cambodian (Nacaskul 1962, p.148) ⁸.

All ordinal numerals formed by the key-words //ti:// and /thî:// are thus compared as being examples of Instance 1 : SG SO SL.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//ti:-rɔ:y//	/thî:-rɔ:y/	hundredth
//ti:-sæsvp//	/thî:-sî:=sîp/*	fortieth
//ti:-sa:msvp//	/thî:-sǎ:m=sîp/	thirtieth
//ti:-pram//	/thî:-hǎ:/	fifth
//ti:-mu:ey//	/thî:-nǎn/	first
etc.	etc.	

The Sanskritic numerals EKA 'one', DVI 'two', TRĪ 'three' and CATU 'four' are borrowed into Cambodian and Thai and are used as titular numerals for denoting the grading order of official ranks in the military as well as in the civil servant organization. The lexical meaning and the grammatical functions of these numerals in the two languages are the same. Such words, therefore, belong to Instance 1.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//puɛlbɑ:l-ʔæk//	/sîp-ʔè:k/	Sergeant
//ʔənu-ni:əvi:-to://	/rwə-tho:/	Sub-Lieutenant (navy)
//vɛersɛsɛ:nvy-trɔy//	/phan-tri:/	Major

* The hyphen - linking the component of a compound is changed into the sign = when such compound enters into a compounding process with another item.

4. Post-NumeralsInstance 3 : SG DO SL

All post-numerals occurring in Cambodian and Thai are of different origins but with the same lexical meaning.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//phlɑ:y//	/sɛ:t/	remainder, fraction
//pon nɔh//	/thŭen/	exactly
-	/thâw nɔn/	only
//kuət//	/tron/	exactly, sharp (expressing time)

The numeral-names in Cambodian and Thai are basically different, as evidenced from the occurrence of an extra set of '-teen' forms (Section C.2c) and the archaic numerals which function more like classifiers and are classified as such in this work (Section D.2c below). With the help of loan-words they come to use the same decimal system, and the combinations of numeral-names are consequently determined for their value by the same rules as those used by the Thais.

D. CLASSIFIERS

Classifiers play a very important rôle in Thai grammar since they have a function not only in enumeration but also in determinative and adjectival constructions. Many classifiers appear to have a special lexical relationship with the head nouns they modify. There are quite a large number of classifiers in Thai but a

comparatively small number in Cambodian. Thai dictionaries and grammar books list up to 200 items as classifiers (Noss 1964, p.105)¹⁵ whereas the Cambodian dictionary (Institut Bouddhique 1967)¹⁸ collects a few so-called 'Numeral helpers' (Samkhyanukruoh) and a Cambodian grammar book (Bhikkhu Dhamma-palo Khiev Chum 1962)³¹ lists about 70 classifiers (Leakkhananeam).

Owing to the fact that the use of classifiers in Thai is a necessity whilst in Cambodian it is rather an optional feature, and also owing to the fact that in Old Khmer (Cambodian before the 17th century) there were only metric classifiers (i.e. the units for measurement) and no numeral classifiers in the sense of units for accompanying numerals alone (Jacob 1965, p.161)²⁶, the use of classifiers other than metric classifiers can be said to have been influenced by Thai practice. The comparison of Cambodian and Thai classifiers yields the discovery that the influence of one language over the other can be so great that it affects the grammatical patterns as well as the lexical system of the recipient language. The range of function of a word can be widened, and new grammatical patterns can be introduced.

Table X below lists the frequency of occurrences of classifiers under various Instances, and the discussion of each Instance in detail will be found in the subsequent sections.

TABLE X
OCCURRENCES OF SUB-CLASSES OF CLASSIFIERS

Instance	Unit Classifier	Metric Classifier	Personal Classifier	General Classifier
1	Abundant	Abundant	Moderate	Few
2	Only one	-	-	-
3	Abundant	Abundant	Few	-
4	Moderate	Few	-	Very rare

1. Unit Classifiers

a) Instance 1 : SG SO SL

There are quite a large number of unit classifiers which belong to Instance 1 in the comparison. Some of them are Sanskritic loans. In many cases the unit classifiers not only act as the 'unit for counting of the noun' but also have lexical references to the 'characteristic or manner of presentation of the thing'. They reflect therefore the speaker's idea of how he thinks of certain things that are expressed as nouns. Consequently, some classifiers can occur with a large number of nouns whereas others may be restricted to some few nouns in particular.

Most Cambodian classifiers listed in this investigation are taken from 'Kampuch Veyyeakar' (Bhikkhu Dhamma-palo Khiev Chum 1962),³¹

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>Description of usage</u> (i.e., as a classifier of -)
//tue//	/tue/	upright object, letter, character in a play, character in written work, etc., animal
//phol//	/phǒn/	fruits
//vuən//	/woŋ/	ring, circle, bangle, anklet
//thæp//	/thê:p/	long, flat and narrow shaped object
//krwəŋ//	/khrwəŋ/	engine, machine, aircraft, radio and television sets
//du:ŋ//	/duəŋ/	round shapes or objects, seal, stamp, lamp, star, the sun, the moon, soul, eyes
//phaen//	/phên/	flat objects, paper, picture, phonograph record, plate of glass, picture card, slice of bread, food that has a round or flat shape, e.g. pancake
//lau//	/law/	flute, also a stringed instrument in Cambodian
//chbæp//	/chəbǎp/	issue (of a newspaper), a copy (of a book), letter, document, ticket, banknote
//mu://	/muən/	cigar, cigarette
//mu://	/mú:ən/	roll, reel (of film)
//ro:ŋ//	/ro:ŋ/	theatre, theatre company, building
//təp//	/tǎp/	bullets, thatch of nipa palm leaves
//thli:əy//	/thelɑ:y/	cluster (of coconuts and areca nuts)
//rwəŋ//	/rŭəŋ/	story, tale
//phæp//	/phǎp/	roll of clothing material

b) Instance 2 : SG SO DL

There is a classifier in Cambodian and Thai, the form of which is close enough to be considered as stemming from the same source, but the meaning of which differs from one language to the other. The comparison produces an example of Instance 2, namely, words of the same grammatical function and same origin but of different meanings.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Usage</u> (to go with a noun having the meaning of -)
//bɔ:n//	a heap of things, a group of people or animals
<u>Thai</u>	<u>Usage</u> (to go with a noun having the meaning of -)
/bɔ̃n/	gambling house, amusement place

c) Instance 3 : SG DO SL

The Thai language uses a large number of unit classifiers which are the classifiers for common nouns. Strictly speaking, a unit classifier has no other lexical meaning than 'unit for counting a particular noun'. There is, however, a moderate number of unit classifiers which have their origins in nouns of one type or another, but which have come to function as classifiers. These classifiers thus have an original or basic meaning.

The Cambodian common nouns do not normally need classifiers. However, it is surprising to find that there are lots of words which can be used as classifiers for common nouns. These words

have original meanings which are the same as the original meanings of the Thai unit classifiers. Classifiers with the same original meanings are used with the corresponding nouns with the same meanings.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//muŋ pi: khno:ŋ// (mosquito-net--two--back)	/mũŋ sǎ:ŋ lǎŋ/ (mosquito-net--two--back)	two mosquito-nets
//dǝmrɣy mu:əy khsæe// (elephant--one--cord)	/chǎ:ŋ nũŋ chũək/ (elephant--one--cord)	one elephant
//ni:əlikɑ: bu:ən phtsəh// (watch--four--house)	/nɑ:likɑ: sǐ: rwen/ (watch--four--house)	four watches

The examples given below are divided into two groups; those in group A have the same original meanings in Cambodian as in Thai. It is to be remarked that when they occur as classifiers they accompany the nouns which have the same meanings in Cambodian as in Thai too. This fact can be interpreted as corroboration of the evidence of loan translation from Thai into Cambodian.* It will be confirmed by the comparison of noun constructs, the Cambodian patterns of which follow the Thai ones. This comparison was carried out in Section D of Chapter VI.

The classifiers in group B have different original meanings, but they are used to modify nouns which have the same meanings in Cambodian as in Thai.

* See Appendix C.

Group ACambodianThaiUsage (to go with a noun having such a meaning as-)

//sɔnlɤk// (leaf)	/bɔy/ (leaf)	leaf
//dɔəm// (trunk of a tree)	/tɔn/ (trunk of a tree)	tree, pillar, pole
//phtsəh// (house)	/rwən/ (house, home)	watch, clock
//khsæe// (cord)	/chm̥ək/ (cord)	elephant
//snɤt// (comb)	/wɪ:/ (comb)	hand of bananas
//khnɔːŋ// (back)	/lɔŋ/ (back)	house, mosquito-net, tent, hut
//bɔmpuəŋ// (pipe, tube)	/krɔbɔːk/ (pipe, tube)	bamboo, gun, pistol
//mɔət// (mouth)	/pɔːk/ (mouth)	cast net, fish net, seine
//dɔːŋ// (handle)	/dɔːm/ (handle)	pen, pencil
//dom// (lump)	/kɔːn/ (lump)	piece of brick, rock, etc.
//rəbom// (roll, reel)	/mɔːn/ (roll, reel)	mat, film

Group B

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>Usage</u> (to go with a noun having such a meaning as-)
//kəmnət// (cut piece)	/chín/ (piece)	cake, clothing material, meat
//phtsəŋ// (slab)	/phǎ:n/ (sheet)	towel, rug, curtain
//bəŋ// (to hide)	/bɑ:n/ (to bloom)	door, window, plate of glass, door of a cupboard, mirror
//sut// (egg)	/fə:ŋ/ (bubble)	egg
//kba:l// (head)	/lêm/ *	book
//sə:səy// (nerve)	/sên/ (line, tendon)	cord, wire
//bəntəet// (straight, ruler)	/sǎ:y/ (line, streak)	route, road, river, canal
etc.	etc.	

d) Instance 4 : SG DO DL

Unit classifiers in the Thai language are numerous. Apart from the special words which occur as classifiers for particular nouns, many nouns can occur as their own classifiers. In the case of many compounds the heads can normally be classifiers for these

* This word /lêm/ itself has no lexical referent: it is used as a unit classifier for books, carts and knives which differ so markedly in nature, shape and size that the meaning is not deducible.

compounds. Furthermore, there are a few words which can be unit classifiers of a large number of nouns. None of these classifiers has a comparable form in Cambodian.

(i) Nouns occurring as their own classifiers

<u>Thai</u>	/krəpǃ/	'pocket, purse, suitcase'
	/klɔ̃ŋ/	'camera, pipe'
	/kɔːŋ-rɔ̃ːy/	'military company'
	/khroːp-khrue/	'family'
	/chǃe-chǃːt/	'race'
	etc.	

(ii) Heads of compounds occurring as classifiers

<u>Classifiers</u>	<u>Nouns</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
/bɔ̃y/	/bɔ̃y-khǎp-khǃː/	driving licence
/khrǃŋ/	/khrǃŋ-yon/	engine, motor
/ʔǃː/	/ʔǃː-rue/	dock, shipyard
/ruːŋ/	/ruŋ-phǃŋ/	beehive
/thǃː/	/thǃː-nǎŋ/	seat
	etc.	

(iii) Unit classifiers occurring with a large number of nouns

The classifier /ʔan/ in Thai can be used for a large number of nouns; and can replace other classifiers. There is no comparable form in Cambodian.

2. Metric Classifiers

a) Instance 1 : SG SO SL

Metric classifiers conforming to Instance 1 in comparison are mostly loan-words from French (terms for the metric system) or from Chinese. There are also loan-words between Cambodian and Thai as well as loans from Sanskrit.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//mæet//	/mé:t/	a metre
//sɔŋtimæet//	/sentimé:t/	a centimetre
//ki:lo:mæet//	/kilo:mé:t/, /kilo:/	a kilometre
//krɑ:m//	/krɑm/	a gram
//ki:lo:krɑ:m//, //ki:lo://	/kilo:krɑm/, /kilo:/	a kilogram
//hɑ:p//	/hɑ:p/	60 kilograms
//hun//	/hũn/	weight, equal to 0.375 gram
//thɑŋ//	/thǎŋ/	a barrel, equal to 20 litres
//cɑ:n//	/cɑ:n/	a full-plate
//tho://	/thǒ:/	a pitcher full
//pɛ:ŋ-co:k//	/cô:k/	a very small cup
//hɤp//	/hĩ:p/	a trunk
//hao//	/hǎ:/	a packet
//ku://	/khû:/	a pair
//lo://	/lǎ:/	a dozen

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//kɑ:lɿy//	/kuli:/	a set of 20 sarongs
//kɔ:ŋ//	/kɔ:ŋ/	a troop
//pu:ək//	/phûək/	a group
//krom//	/klùm/	a group
//vo:ŋ//	/fũ:ŋ/	a crowd, a herd
//kənsəh//	/khənǎʔ/	a party
//nikɑ:y//	/níkɑ:y/	a sect

b) Instance 3 : SG DO SL

The units of measurement of various goods or products in Cambodia and Thailand may often be the containers which are normally used for storing or keeping the substances, whether they be solid or liquid. Almost all words in the two languages with a meaning admitting of some use as a container can be used as metric classifiers. Some of the metric classifiers of this type conform to Instance 3 in comparison.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
//rətəh//	/kwien/	a cartload
//kɑ:roŋ//	/krəsɔ̌:p/	a sack
//pɛ:ŋ//	/thûey/	a cup, a small bowl
//dəp//	/khùet/	a bottle
//thnəŋ//	/krəbɔ̌:k/	a node of bamboo
//prəʔəp//	/klɔ̌ŋ/	a small box

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//dɔ:p//	/tūm/	a jar (of water)
//kɔnsiəv//	/kɑ:/	a kettle
etc.	etc.	

The examples of metric classifiers which have reference to the measurement of length and quantity, and which conform to Instance 3 are given below :

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//thnɔəp// (finger's width)	/nīw/ (finger's width)	finger's width
//hət// (hand)	/sɔ:k/ (elbow)	a cubit
//cɔmʔɑ:m//	/khâ:p/	a handspan
//phyi:əm//	/wɑ:/	width across, extending both arms
//cɔmhiəŋ//	/sî:k/	half, hemisphere
//kɔnləh//	/khrûŋ/	half

c) Instance 4 : SG DO DL

The classifiers which occur in Cambodian with no equivalents are the metric classifiers of quantity.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//dɔmbɔ://	'foursome'
	//phlɔ:n//	'a number of forty'
	//slɤk//	'a number of four hundred'

These classifiers, however, are becoming archaic.

3. Personal Classifiers

a) Instance 1 : SG SO SL

All personal classifiers in Cambodian and Thai have a general meaning of 'person'. The choice of any particular term to go with any particular noun, as in the case of pronouns and some isolatives, reflects the cultural and social strata in the Cambodian and Thai societies.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>Usage</u> (to go with a noun having such a meaning as-)
//prəh-ʔəŋ//	/phrəʔ-ʔəŋ/	Buddha, king, god
//ʔəŋ//	/ʔəŋ/	king, member of royal families of Rank 2, angel, Buddha's and king's personal effects and belongings
//ru:p//	/rū:p/	Buddhist monk, novice, hermit
//ru:p//	-	nun
-	/ʔəŋ/	Buddhist monk, novice, hermit

b) Instance 3 : SG DO SL

Personal classifiers are comparatively small in number.

There are only two pairs that can be exemplified in this section.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>Usage</u> (to go with a noun having such a meaning as-)
//khlu:ən// (body)	/ton/, /tue/ (body), (body)	giant, spirit, ghost
//nək// (person)	/khon/ (human-being)	person in general

4. General Classifiers

a) Instance 1 : SG SO SL

All Cambodian general classifiers have counterparts in Thai as words of the same origin and same lexical meaning. They are listed below :

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//yɑ:ŋ//	/yǎ:ŋ/	kind, type, sort
//bæp//	/bɛ̃:p/	kind, type, sort
//prəphe:t//	/prəphɛ̃:t/	kind, type, sort

b) Instance 4 : SG DO DL

One Thai general classifier /chɛnɪt/ has no equivalent in Cambodian

Owing to the high degree of borrowing, both of the lexical items and of the structural patterns, Cambodian and Thai classifiers are very close to one another, as can be seen from the result of comparison. Both Instances 1 and 3 are abundant. The point of interest is the uses of certain unit classifiers in both languages which are parallel in choice of terms to explain the characteristics of things. For example, the classifier for flat objects is the word meaning 'flat slab, sheet'. Some classifiers can be used to trace tentative historical developments. For example, the classifier for 'stamps' is the same word as that for round objects, e.g. 'star, the sun, seal'. Its association with 'seal', and hence 'a die for

franking', conjures up the history of 'stamps' and practices current when they were first introduced. Another notable feature of the Thai use of unit classifiers is the dual rôle of the fused nouns. The metric classifiers are mostly containers of certain capacity. The choice of containers in the two countries corresponds very closely.

E. DETERMINATIVES

Determinatives in Cambodian and Thai are few, yet the words call for comparison under three Instances which are Instance 1 : SG SO SL, Instance 3 : SG DO SL, and Instance 4 : SG DO DL. The number of items occurring under these Instances is shown in the Table XI below.

TABLE XI
OCCURRENCES OF SUB CLASSES OF DETERMINATIVES

Instance	Positive Determinative	Interrogative Determinative
1	One	-
2	-	-
3	One	Two
4	Four	-

1. Positive Determinatives

a) Instance 1 : SG SO SL

The Thai positive determinatives /ní:/, /nî:/ and the Cambodian determinative //nih//, all meaning 'this', have very similar forms, grammatical functions and lexical meanings. The phonological evidence offers no conclusive proof of the direction of borrowing, i.e., the use of tone and tone-mark in the Thai version would indicate Thai origin but the final //h// in Cambodian, which is absent in the Thai form, suggest the other direction. However, they can be recognized as stemming from a common origin, whatever it may be.

b) Instance 3 : SG DO SL

The determinatives to be compared under this Instance are in fact very similar to those in Instance 1 previously demonstrated. The only criterion which classifies them as belonging to the Instance 3 is the different forms, which indicate that the words have originated from different sources.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//ʔəneh//, //nɤŋ//	/ní:/, /nî:/	here, this
//nuh//	/nón/, /nân/	that
//ʔəneh//	/nó:n/, /nô:n/	over there

c) Instance 4 : SG DO DL

The Cambodian positive determinatives //ʔæ-tiət// 'other' and //khləh// 'some' have no equivalents with words of the same grammatical function in Thai.

2. Interrogative DeterminativesInstance 3 : SG DO SL

There are two pairs of interrogative determinatives to be compared in this section.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//nɑː//, //nɑː-muːəy//	/nǎy/	which (singular)
//nɑː-khləh//	/nǎy/, /nǎy-bâːŋ/, /nǎy-mâŋ/	which (plural) which (plural)

The determinatives as a class consist of few members. The forms and functions of these members are so remarkably close to one another that a positive decision cannot be easily made about their origins. Moreover, the relationship between the forms and the functions is such an intimate one that it is difficult to decide here if we are dealing with lexical borrowing simply or with the borrowing of grammatically marked elements forming a sub-system, e.g. the phoneme /n-/ marking the class of determinatives; and the alternation of front unrounded and back rounded vowels marking degrees of proximity to the speaker for deixis. In both cases the Instance code will be SL, but the

ground for such a classification will be the word in one case and the system in the other.

CHAPTER VIII
GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS OF PREDICATIVES

Predicatives in the Cambodian and Thai languages are defined as non-substantive words which occur as predicates, or parts of predicates, to subjects in normal sentences (i.e., not equational or imperative sentences). Predicatives include all the following words, which are classified by their functions and their typical occurrences in relation with one another.

- (i) Auxiliaries
- (ii) Negators
- (iii) Initiating verbs
- (iv) Operative verbs
- (v) Retro-active verbs
- (vi) Adjectival verbs
- (vii) Verbal linkers
- (viii) Completive verbs
- (ix) Post-verbs
- (x) Adverbials
- (xi) Verb classifiers
- (xii) Final particles

All these classes of predicatives will each be defined and discussed simultaneously for the two languages in Section A in order to establish the grammatical classes for lexical comparison in Chapter IX. In Section B patterns of verb constructs are listed.

A. CLASSIFICATION OF PREDICATIVES

A comparison of the use of predicatives in Cambodian and Thai reveals astonishing similarities in the classification of word-classes that can be made and also of the function of each class in relation with the others. The definition once set for one language can be directly applied to the other. In the discussion below all predicative classes are, therefore, discussed for both Cambodian and Thai.

1. Auxiliaries Aux

An auxiliary is a verb occurring at the onset of a verb construct, a construction of which a verb is the head. Auxiliaries are mostly bound and therefore are often followed by other verbs. They are classified in the two languages by their occurrence before the negator, which is defined as a verb-marker and is dealt with in the following section. The auxiliaries include terms which, to some extent, make explicit grammatical statements. Thus, //kəmpuŋ tæ// and /kamləŋ/ meaning 'being in action' indicate a continuous action or an action going on; //nuŋ// and /cə/ meaning 'will, shall' indicate a future tense or an action about to be performed.

Cambodian //khpom kəmpuŋ tæ sɔp vithyuh//
 'I am listening to the radio.'

Cambodian //khpom nuŋ tɿu prap lo:k kru: sʔæek nɿŋ//
 'I shall go to tell the teacher tomorrow.'

Thai /kháw kamlan fən wítthəyú?/
 'He is listening to the radio.'
 /phóm cə pəy yîem kháw phrûŋ-ní:/
 'I shall go to see him tomorrow.'

The auxiliaries //nuŋ// and /cə/ can occasionally follow other auxiliaries without indicating a future tense, for example :

Cambodian //ʔo:puk tɿ:p-tæe nuŋ co:l phtsəh//
 'Father has just come into the house.'

Thai /phô: phŋŋ cə klâp bā:n/
 'Father has just returned home.'

The Cambodian and Thai auxiliaries, to be designated as Aux, are further classified into two sub-classes :

- (i) Pre-negator auxiliaries,
- (ii) Non-negated auxiliaries.

Pre-negator auxiliaries

When a negator is present, the pre-negator auxiliary precedes the negator in a verb construct. It can occur without the negator and thus directly precede a verb.

Cambodian //kənlæŋ nih ceh-tæe mun sʔɑ:t//
 'This place is always not clean.'
 //lo:k pu: prəhæl-ci:ə mun so:v sru:əl te://
 'Uncle is perhaps not well.'

Thai /phrûŋ-ní: fôn khon tók/
 'It might rain tomorrow.'
 /khru: yan mây mɑ:/
 'The teacher has not come yet.'

Non-negated auxiliaries

A few auxiliaries in Cambodian and Thai have lexical reference to either negative or absolute affirmative sense and so do not co-occur with a negator. They precede the verb and in Cambodian some of them could, for more emphatic effect, precede the subject.

Cambodian //so:m cu:əy khnom pho:ŋ//
 'Please help me.'
 //co:l ?æŋ khom rien so:t ?əoy mɛ:n-tɛ:n nɑ://
 'Try to study hard, will you?'

Thai /yǎ: tham yǎ:ŋ nǎn/
 'Don't do like that.'
 /prò:t mɑ: thɑ:ŋ ní: nøy kǎ/
 'Please come this way.'

2. Negators Neg

A negator, Neg, is a word or a complex with negative reference, occurring before the main verb in a verb construct. There are two types of negator in the two languages :

- (i) One-word negators,
- (ii) Complex negators.

The one-word negator in both languages serves also as a verbal marker. Thus, in initiating sentences*, words occurring after the negator //mun// in Cambodian, and after the negator /mây/ in Thai are classified as verbs; and the non-substantive words preceding the negators are classified as auxiliaries.

Cambodian //lo:k kuəŋ-tæ mun ceh so:se: te://
'You certainly do not know how to write.'

Thai /khun khon cə mây rú:càk khǎw/
'Perhaps you do not know him.'

The complex negators are combinations of a negator and another verb which has come to lose its original meaning, i.e. the meaning it conveys when it occurs as a main verb, if it does at all.

Cambodian //khpom mun-me:n ci:ə kru:-bəŋriən te://
(I--not true--to be--teacher--P)
'I am not a teacher.'

Thai /chǎn mây-hěn rú: rŭəŋ lɔ:y/
(I--not see--to know--story--P)
'I did not know what was going on.'

3. Initiating Verbs Vi

An initiating verb, which will be designated as Vi, is a verb that occurs immediately before another verb which functions as the head of the whole verb construct. Initiating verbs cannot

* See Panupong 1970, p.1¹⁶.

occur as main verbs or take substantive objects. As initiating verbs, they have relatively weak stress.

Cambodian //ko:n mun ku:e mɿ:l siəvphvu nih//
 (child--not--ought to--to read--book--this)
 'You should not read this book, son.'

Thai /lû:k m&y khuən ʔǎ:n nǎŋsǎm: nǐ:/
 (child--not--ought to--to read--book--this)
 'You should not read this book, son.'

4. Operative Verbs Vo

An operative verb, Vo, occurs as the head of a verb construct which functions as predicate to a substantive subject in a sentence. A verb construct can occur as the sole constituent of a sentence, i.e., in imperative sentences. Operative verbs in Cambodian and Thai do not normally modify nouns in any noun complex, but, in some particular cases, they may do so and occur with a noun head word. This must be regarded as an additional function, which in fact enables them to form attributive subordinate compounds with a noun head word.*

The uses of operative verbs in Cambodian and Thai seem to be parallel as the following observations reveal :

(i) Some operative verbs need a substantive object, others do not; and these could thus be called 'transitive operatives'

* See noun compounds of patterns 6 and 8 in Chapter XI.

and 'intransitive operatives' respectively. However, a large number of operative verbs can occur transitively as well as intransitively,* no such division will therefore be made in the present work.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//phlɿ:ŋ cheh//	'The fire is burning.'
	(fire-- <u>to burn</u>)	
	//phlɿ:ŋ cheh phtsəh//	'The house is on fire.'
	(fire-- <u>to burn</u> --house)	
<u>Thai</u>	/fay m&y/	'The fire is burning.'
	(fire-- <u>to burn</u>)	
	/fay m&y b&:n/	'The house is on fire.'
	(fire-- <u>to burn</u> --house)	

(ii) Operative verbs in both languages can occur in sequence with or without verbal linkers**, and with or without substantive objects for each verb in the sequence.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//ni:əŋ <u>hæek</u> səmbot <u>ʔɑ:n</u> phli:əm mu:əy rumpec	
	1 2	
	<u>khmi:ən</u> pe:l <u>boŋʔəŋ</u> yu://	
	3 4	
	'She <u>opened</u> the letter, <u>read</u> it immediately, without	
	1 2	
	<u>delaying.</u> '	
	3-4	

(Maha sangkream neou Angkor, p.43)³²

* Panupong classified these two types of verbs as homophonous verbs (Panupong 1970, p.123)¹⁶.

** See Section A.7 below.

5. Retro-Active Verbs Vr

A retro-active verb is a verb which precedes the actor.

They can occur with a preceding noun (of general reference in the subject position) normally functioning as the topic, but with the actor following the verb which describes the action.

<u>Cambodian</u>	// <u>thlsek</u> phliɛŋ/ (<u>to fall</u> --rain)	'It rains.'
	//ke: <u>ho:</u> chi:əm/ (he-- <u>to flow</u> --blood)	'He is bleeding.'
<u>Thai</u>	/khǽ:ŋ <u>khûn</u> rɑ:kha:/ (thing-- <u>to go up</u> --price)	'Things are up in price.'
	/chǎ:ŋ <u>tòk</u> man/ (elephant-- <u>to fall</u> --fat, grease)	'Elephants are in rut.'

Most Cambodian retro-active verbs are connected with the description of time as well as accidental or natural events.* In Thai too, they are connected with the description of time, accidents and illnesses, but not of natural events. It is to be remarked that in both languages the adverbials modifying the retro-active verbs always come after the succeeding actors and not after the verbs themselves. In the following examples, the adverbials are underlined.

* These retro-active verbs are comparable to Jacob's impersonal use of verbs (Jacob 1968, pp. 108-109)¹³, but they do not always coincide.

Cambodian //dɔl mɑŋ hæy rɯ: nɯ//
 (arrive--time--already --or--not yet)
 'Is it time yet?'

//khpom ɲəŋmɔt muk nɑs//
 (I--dark--face--very)
 'I feel dizzy very much.'

Thai /thǎŋ we:lɑ: lɛ:w rǔ: yɑŋ/
 (arrive--time--already--or--not yet)
 'Is it time yet?'

/phóm pùet thǎ:ŋ lǎəkɯ:n/
 (I--to ach--stomach--extremely)
 'I have a severe stomach ache.'

6. Adjectival Verbs Va

An adjectival verb is a verb, which can occur before the markers //ci:əŋ// and /kwǎ:/ 'more' in Cambodian and Thai respectively, and which also occurs as a noun modifier in noun complexes.*

When occurring after another verb, an adjectival verb always has an adverbial function and thus modifies the preceding verb.

Cambodian //nɛək thom ci:əŋ khpom//
 (you--big--more--I)
 'You are bigger than I.'

//kɔət crierɲ pɪrueh nɑs//
 (she--to sing--pleasing to the ear--very)
 'She sings very beautifully.'

* See pattern G. 6 in Section VI.D.2.

Thai /thɯ: sǔ:ŋ kwà: chán/
 (you--tall--more--I)
 'You are taller than I.'
 /kháw ró:ŋ-phle:ŋ phró? mâ:k/
 (she--to sing--pleasing to the ear--very)
 'She sings very beautifully.'

The functions of adjectival verbs in the Cambodian and Thai languages can be compared and summarized as follows :

(i) They are intransitive and can occur as the predicate to substantive subjects.

Cambodian //bɔntup nih tu:li:ey//
 (room--this--large)
 'This room is large.'

Thai /hôn ní: kwâ:ŋ/
 (room--this--wide)
 'This room is large.'

(ii) They can occur in sequence with or without verbal linkers.

Cambodian //sɔmle:ŋ ni:əŋ pi:rueh phaem nəs//
 (voice--she--pleasing to the ear--sweet--very)
 'Her voice is very sweet and pleasing to the ear.'

Thai /sǎŋ thɯ: wǎ:n phayró? cɨncɨn/
 (voice--she--sweet--pleasing to the ear--really)
 'Her voice is very sweet and pleasing to the ear.'

(iii) They can perform an adverbial function and modify the preceding operative or adjectival verbs.

Cambodian //ʔɑ:vut rəbɔh nɛək mut thlɑ://

'His weapon is 'razor'sharp.'

Thai /ʔɑ:wít khǒŋ khǎw khom krîp/

'His weapon is 'razor'sharp.'

(iv) They often occur as noun modifiers in noun complexes. However, as already pointed out in the pattern G. 6.1 in Chapter VI, adjectival verbs which modify nouns in Thai can be accompanied by classifiers whereas in Cambodian they can be accompanied by a particle. This can be noted as the only difference in the use of adjectival verbs in the two languages.

Cambodian //bʊk-muk dɔ: mut-mɔəm//

'the good-looking face.'

//mɛnʊs prəsæ tɛəŋ-nih//

'these excellent people.'

Thai /thənǒn sǎ:y mà:y/

'the new road.'

/krəpǎw bəy lék/

'the small suitcase.'

7. Verbal Linkers Lv

A verbal linker is a word which links a verb or a verb construct to the preceding verb or verb construct. Verbal linkers in Cambodian and Thai are of two types :

- (i) Co-ordinate verbal linkers, to be designated as Lv_1
- (ii) Subordinate verbal linkers, to be designated as Lv_2 .

The co-ordinate verbal linkers join verb constructs or heads of verb constructs together. There might, however, be a series of verbs in a predicate and the verbal linkers joining them might be omitted in some positions.

Cambodian //yuvsetŷy ɲv:p læŋ hæy ɲənum bontec tʃu rə:k tɔ:y//
'The young girl got up and smiled a little to Toy.'

Thai /yĩŋ sə:w yím rǎp dō:k-máy lé:w chv:n khǎw khǎw pay
náy hōŋ-rǎp-khè:k/
'The young girl smiled, took the flowers and invited him to the living-room.'

The subordinate verbal linkers join verbs within the same verb construct. The verbs occurring before the linkers are heads of the construct whereas the ones following them function as modifiers. The verbs which follow the verbal linkers are given the name 'completive verbs'. Thus, subordinate verbal linkers always link main verbs with their completive verbs.

The negators //mun// and /mây/ 'not', and the auxiliaries //num// and /cə/ 'will, shall', and //cut num// and /kùep/ 'nearly', which occur in the same position as verbal linkers also function as linkers if the following verbs express a lexical implication of result with respect to the preceding verbs.

Cambodian //khpom de:k mun luək//
(I--to lie down--not--asleep)
'I cannot sleep.'

Cambodian //ke: thvɿ:-kɑ: cwt nun srac//
 (he--to work--nearly--finished)
 'He has nearly finished working.'

Thai /khǎw tham-rǎ:n kùep sèt/
 (he--to work--nearly--finished)
 'He has nearly finished working.'
 /phǒm nɔ:n mây lǎp/
 (I--to lie down--not--asleep)
 'I cannot sleep.'

8. Completive Verbs Comp V

A completive verb is a verb that occurs as the second position main verb in a verb complex. Normally, it occurs immediately after the main verb, but it sometimes is interrupted by a substantive or a noun construct or a linker. Should the verb complexes be negated, the negators have to be placed before the completive verbs and not before the main verbs. A complex of a verb with a completive verb differs from a sequence of two verbs in the lexical relation between the two verbs, the completive verb performs a function as an 'adverb of result' of the preceding verb and not just as another verb. Some operative verbs occur with particular completive verbs so often that the two of them produce some sort of associative verbal compound.

Cambodian //yɿ:ŋ rɔ:k khv:p rwəŋ ci:ə cræn tiet//
 (we--to look for--to see --story--to be--many--again)
 'We find many other stories.'

- Cambodian //khpom sdap mun ba:n te://
 (I--listen--not--to get--P)
 'I cannot understand.'
- Thai /kháw nɔ:n lǎp nɑ:n cɪŋ/
 (he--to lie down--to be asleep--long--really)
 'He slept for a long time.'
- /chǎn tɔk-cay con phû:t mây ?ɔ:k/
 (I--frightened--until--to speak--not--out)
 'I was so frightened that I could not speak.'

In both languages, the completive verbs can be preceded by a verbal linker with or without substantive objects of the main verbs.

- Cambodian //khpom nmɿ thsek vi:ə ?əoy du:l//
 (I--will--to kick--him--so as to--to fall)
 'I shall kick him down.'
- Thai /phǒm cə tɛh kháw hây lóm thi:diəw/
 (I--will--to kick--him--so as to--to fall--quite)
 'I shall certainly kick him down.'

9. Post-Verbs Pos V

A post verb is an operative verb which occurs with weak stress at the end of a main verb complex. They are verbs of direction and position, the choice of terms depends very much on where the speaker is and in what direction or into what condition he thinks the action will proceed.

- Cambodian //?əeŋ tru phsɑ: coh//
 (you--to go--market--to go down)
 'You go to the market.'

Cambodian //chup kwt vi:ə tiet tru bə:n rwen kənlo:n hu:əs
 mək hæy//
 (to stop--to think--it--again--to go--elder brother--
 story--to pass--over--to come--already)
 'Stop thinking about it, darling, it is all over now.'

Thai /rew khâw sǎ:y lé:w/
 (fast--to enter--late--already)
 'Hurry up, it's late.'

/khun cə phû:t thǔŋ man pay thammay rûeŋ man phǎ:n
pay (mǎ:) lé:w/
 (you--will--to talk--to--it--to go--why--story--it
 --to pass--to go--(to come)--already)
 'Why are you talking about it? It is all over now.'

10. Adverbials Adv

An adverbial is a word, a down-graded verb or a down-graded construction, that functions as a modifier more often of verbs and occasionally of nouns. Some adverbials in Cambodian and Thai can be either pre-positional or post-positional in relation to verbs or verb constructs they modify, others can occur in both positions.

Cambodian //bonthmən bə: dəoy lbwən thoəmməɔ://
 (Bonthoeun--to drive--with--speed--normal)
 'Bonthoeun drives at a normal speed.'
 (Troung anatha, p.1)²⁹

//pros kəmləh sæn tɔ:n-tvŋ knoŋ cɔt//
 (man--young--hundred thousand, extremely --depressed
 --in--heart)
 'The young man felt extremely depressed.'

(Ao! Phsaeng marana, p.47)³⁵

Thai

/raw phǎ:n mǎ: tǎ:m thənǎn thǐ: khǎk-khǎk
dūey rǒt lǎ? phū:-khon/

(we--to pass--to come--along--road--that--busy
with--car--and--people)

'We passed along the road which is crowded with
cars and people.'

(Ruam ru'ang san, p.155)³⁶

/wan-rŭŋ-khŭn phichê:t nǎ:n kǎt lǎp yù:
bon thǐ:-nǎ:n con sǎ:y/

(the following day--Pichet--to lie down--to bite
finger nails--to stay--on--bed--till--late)

'On the following day, Pichet lay in bed, biting
his finger nails until late in the morning.'

(Nik kap Phim, p.9)³⁷

The uses of adverbials in both languages are very similar with regard to the form and the possible position in which they can occur in the sentences. The adverbials with lexical reference to time and place often occur at the beginning or at the end of sentences whereas the adverbials with reference to manner occur before or after verbs, before or after verb complexes, or at the end of sentences, depending on the degree of emphasis that is put on them. With reference to their position in which they occur, adverbials can be roughly classified into three sub-classes : pre-verb adverbials, post-verb adverbials and general adverbials. In Cambodian and Thai there are also words which can initiate sentences, constructs, complexes or other words and turn them into adverbials. These words will be termed 'adverbial markers', and the adverbials formed by adverbial markers can be referred to

also as 'modifier constructs',

Cambodian //ke: yɔ:k khni:ə ci:ə sɔmlaŋ//
 (they--to take--each other--to be--friend)
 'They agreed to be friends.'

(Prachum roeung preng, Vol.2, p.3)²⁸

//ke: bɔŋchup ruətyuən yɑ:ŋ ?ɔs tumhɯŋ//
 (he--to stop--car--in the manner of--all--strength)
 'He stopped the car with all his might.'

(Troung anatha, p.8)²⁹

Thai /phǒŋ man lɔŋ cǎ:k rɯən pay do:y mǎy mi: khray rú:/
 (Phong--he--to go down--from--house--to go--by--not
--to have --who--to know)
 'Phong went away from home without anyone knowing
 of his leaving.'

(Chai sam bot, p.103)³⁴

/chǎn lɔŋ-mu: tɛŋ-tuə yǎ:ŋ prɛnɿ:t/
 (I--begin--to dress--in the manner of--neat)
 'I began to dress myself neatly.'

(Ruam ru'ang san, p.255)³⁶

11. Verb Classifiers Ver Cl

A verb classifier is a word which occurs with a verb head-word in just the same manner as do classifiers with nouns. Verb classifiers are very often onomatopoeic and imitative words, but sometimes are simply nouns or verbs.

Cambodian //ke: thæp pi:-bɯy khsw:t//
 (he--to kiss--two-three--sound of kissing)
 'He kissed [her] two or three times.'

Cambodian //khpom mɿ:l siəvphɿu nih pi: cəp//
 (I--to read--book--this--two--through to the end)
 'I finished reading this book twice.'

Thai /khǎw cù:p sǎ:ŋ-sǎ:m fǎ:t/
 (he--to kiss--two-three--sound of kissing)
 'He kisses [her] two or three times.'

/chǎn ʔǎ:n nǎŋsǎ: ní: sǎ:ŋ cəp lǎ:w/
 (I--to read--book--this--two--through to the end--
 already)
 'I finished reading this book twice.'

12. Final Particles FP

A final particle is a bound word occurring at the end of a phrase or a sentence. It may be referred to as the phrase-final or the sentence-final particle. The final particles often have a close link with the main verb complexes. Although they may follow the verbs immediately they can also occur after the object or the adverbials and are thus widely separated from the verbs.

Cambodian //prəyɑoc sɑmkhɑn myɑ:ŋ tiet sɛlɑ:cɑ:rɿk nih mʊm
 trɿm-tæ kot-trɑ: tuk nɿu prɛh ri:ɛc bɑmnɑ:ŋ
 rəbɑs prɛh ʔədɿt mɛhɑ: khsɑt khmæ ponnɔh te:
 ʔɑ:c rəp bɑ:n ci:ɛ vɔənnəkɑm mu:ɛy ...səməy
 nuh pho:ŋ//

'Another important advantage is that these inscriptions not only recorded the wishes of the ancient Cambodian kings, but also represented a type of literature of the time.'

(Liy Theam-Teng 1960, p.89)³⁸

Thai /ʔi:k prəkɑ:n nưŋ năʔ khăh dichấn mây hễn dūey rôk wă:
 nísít thúk khon cə tōŋ riən ʔă:n sîlɑ:cɑ:rŭk bo:ra:n
 nî: năh/

'Furthermore, I do not agree that all students have to learn to read the ancient stone inscription.'

In both languages, the phrase-final and sentence-final particles are recognized by their occurring at the end of a phrase or a sentence. They are included in the predicates because some of them are closely related to a certain aspect of the verb, e.g., //te:// with negation, //rɔ:// and /rŭ:/ with interrogation, and some of them express the attitude of the speaker towards the verbal expression that is being uttered. The common feature that can be noticed in comparing the uses of the final particles in the two languages are as follows :-

(i) More than one particle can occur in sequence, and when there is more than one, a fixed word-order is observed, and the final particles can be thus classified into 3 sub-classes in Cambodian and 4 sub-classes in Thai.

(ii) They often bear intonation-phonology for the sentence. Thai is a tonal language. It is the final particles that are intonation bearers and so do not have a fixed tone to the same degree as does any normal word in a sentence.

(iii) One group of final particles has an interrogative sense and is used to form interrogative sentences.

In Thai one sub-class of final particles is used as polite words. Its function corresponds to the Cambodian initiating particles dealt with in Section A.4 of Chapter IV and in Section D.2a of Chapter V.

B. PATTERNS OF VERB CONSTRUCTS

A verb construct in Cambodian and Thai can include all members of the classes of predicatives and the simple order of occurrence is more or less fixed as follows :-

Patterns G.15 : Aux + Neg + Vo + (object) + Pos V + Adv
 G.16 : Aux + Neg + Va + Pos V + Adv + FP
 G.17 : Vo + (object) + Lv₂ + Comp V + (object) +
 Pos V + Adv + FP

The adverbials (Adv) can be shifted to another position, e.g., to the beginning of the sentence, to before the verb construct, or to the end of the sentence.* Some auxiliaries (Aux) also occur before the subject.**

A verb construct in the two languages can be very complicated with more than one Vo + (object) or Va filling the positions indicated in the above patterns. The pattern G.17 may even be expanded, for example, to include a complete repetition of

* See Section A.10 above.

** See Section A.1 above.

Vo + (object) + Lv₂ + Comp V + (object). There might be a substantive or a noun construct occurring as the object in the object position. When there is more than one verb in the verb construct, the substantive can simultaneously be the object of the preceding verb and the subject of the following one. The analysis of a verb construct must be approached hierarchically by the use of the technique of Immediate Constituent analysis.

In this section an attempt is made to illustrate principal patterns of verb constructs representing different types of relations between the verbs, and between the verb and the substantive within a construct.*

Pattern G. 18 : a sequence of verbs with or without co-ordinate verbal linkers.

G. 18.1 : Vo + (Lv₁) + Vo ... Lv₁ + Vo

G. 18.2 : Va + Va + Va ... Lv₁ + Va

Cambodian //meymun dɤŋ kwt ru: thvɤ: do:c mdec te://
'I do not know what to think or how to do it.'

Thai /mê: mǎy dǎ:y rien khien rǔ: ʔǎ:n mǎ: kǎ:n/
'Mother did not learn to read or write before.'

Cambodian //ke: lʔɔ: sʔɑ:t-bɑ:t hæy slo:t tron//
'She is nice, beautiful and honest.'

* Reference is also made to Bhandhumedha's 'The Structure of the Nucleus, a Verb Phrase Constituent' (Bhandhumedha 1967)³⁹, for some of the patterns of verb constructs.

- Thai /thɿ: suəy chələ:t lé? di:/
'She is beautiful, clever and good.'
- Pattern G. 19 : a sequence of operative verbs with or without a substantive as object.
Vo + (N) + Vo + (N)
- Cambodian //ʔənda:t səmrəp phluək ʔa:ha: niyi:əy hæy crieŋ//
'The tongue [is] for tasting food, speaking and singing.'
- Thai /lín səmrəp līm rôt ʔa:hă:n phû:t lé? rố:ŋ-phle:ŋ/
'The tongue [is] for tasting food, speaking and singing.'
- Pattern G. 20 : a sequence of verbs with one substantive as the object of all of them.
Vo + Vo ... + N
- Cambodian //ni:əŋ co:lcɿt kət de: pəh cuəs kəu-ʔa:v//
(she--to like--to cut--to sew--to patch--to darn
--trousers-blouse)
'She likes needle work.'
- Thai /thɿ: păt kwà:t chət thũ: hōŋ thúk hōŋ/
(she--to dust of--to sweep--to wipe--to rub--
room--every--room)
'She cleans every room thoroughly.'
- Pattern G. 21 : a sequence of two operative verbs with or without a verbal linker in between and with substantives following all of them.
Vo + N₁ + Vo + N₂
Vo + N₁ + (Lv₂) + Vo + N₂

In this pattern the first substantive N_1 is simultaneously the object of both operative verbs, the second substantive N_2 is the indirect object of the second verb.

Cambodian //mda:y khpom thvɿ: mho:p prəke:n lo:k sɔŋ//
 (mother--I--to make--food--to offer--monk)
 'My mother prepared food for the monks.'

//ke: thvɿ: kɑ: cu:n mda:y//
 (he--to do--work--to offer--mother)
 'He works for [his] mother.'

Thai /mɛ: chǎn tham ʔɑ:hǎ:n thəva:y phrá?/
 (mother--I--to make--food--to offer--monk)
 'My mother prepared food for the monks.'

/khǎw tɛŋ bǎ:n hây phûen/
 (He--to decorate--house--to give--friend)
 'He decorates the house for his friend.'

Pattern G. 22 : a sequence of a verb and a completive verb with a substantive as object to both verbs in between , there can also be a verbal linker between the first verb and the substantive.

$Vo + (Lv_2) + N + Comp V$

Cambodian //khpom rɔ:k vɛntɑ: khv:p hæy//
 (I--to look for--spectacles--to see--already)
 'I have found [my] spectacles.'

Cambodian //ke: cəp trɔy bə:n//
 (he--to catch--fish--to be able)
 'He can catch fish.'

Thai /chǎn hǎ: wɛntɔ: phóp lɛ:w/
 (I--to look for--spectacles--to see--already)
 'I have found [my] spectacles.'
 /khǎw cəp plɔ: dā:y/
 (he--to catch--fish--to get)
 'He can catch fish.'

Pattern G. 23 : a sequence of two operative verbs with or without verbal linkers. The substantive between the verbs is the object of the first one and the subject of the second.

$$Vo + N + (Lv_2) + Vo$$

Cambodian //khpom nmɔj thsek ke: ʔəoy du:əl tsəŋ cho://
 (I--will--to kick--him--in order to--to fall--the whole of--to stand)
 'I will kick him down from standing.'

Thai /chǎn cə tɛʔ khǎw hǎy lóm thǎŋ yu:n/
 (I--will to kick--him--in order to--to fall--the whole of--to stand)
 'I will kick him down from standing.'

Pattern G. 24 : a sequence of an operative verb and a completive verb with or without a verbal linker in between, and with a substantive as object of the preceding operative verb and subject of the following completive one,

and also with another noun as object of the
completive verb.

Vo + N + (Lv₂) + Comp V + N

Cambodian //kom bəh bəl ʔəoy tro:v pʔo:n nsek//
(do not--to throw--ball--to hit-- younger sibling
--you)

'Do not throw the ball to hit your brother.'

//kəət bəp kəmpʰlɿ:ŋ tro:v ke://

(he--to shoot--gun--to hit--him)

'He shoots him.'

Thai /yā: khwā:ŋ lū:k-bən do:n nō:ŋ/

(do not--to throw--ball--to hit--younger sibling)

'Do not throw the ball to hit [your] brother.'

/khāw yīŋ pū:n thū:k khon/

(he--to shoot--gun--to hit--people)

'He shoots a man.'

Pattern G. 25 : An adjectival verb modifies the preceding
operative one, with or without a verbal
linker in between.

Vo + Va

Vo + Lv₂ + Va

Cambodian //mdə:y-mi:ŋ khnom thvɿ: bə:y prəsəp nas//

(aunt--I--to do--rice--good at--very)

'My aunt is very good at cooking.'

//khom sə:se: ʔəoy lʔo: nɑ://

(to try--to write--in order to--beautiful--P)

'Try to write beautifully.'

Thai

/nǎ: chǎn tham khruə kɛ̃n thidiəw/

(aunt--I--to do--kitchen--good at--quite)

'My aunt is very good at cooking.'

/phəyɑ:ya:m khǎn hây sǔey nǎ?/

(to try--to write--in order to--beautiful--P)

'Try to write beautifully.'

CHAPTER IX

LEXICAL COMPARISON OF PREDICATIVES

The grammatical comparison of predicatives presented in Chapter VIII reveals a great similarity in the order and inventory of all verb classes and sub-classes in Cambodian and Thai, much more so than is the case with substantives. In this chapter, words classified as predicatives will be compared according to their Instance codes in order to determine the degree of closeness in the use of lexicon in the two languages. However, the comparison cannot be regarded as complete owing to the fact that more than one verb class is large and open, and an attempt to complete the comparison is consequently not practical for such classes. For small classes, such as negators and post-verbs, on the other hand, an attempt has been made to assemble all the comparable members of the classes, although no claim is made that the lists are exhaustive. With the Instance codes as the sole tool for comparison, members of each class of predicatives are compared instance by instance.

A. AUXILIARIES

In spite of the identical syntactic functions of Cambodian and Thai auxiliaries as revealed in the grammatical comparison, the lexical study of these auxiliaries results in their falling

into Instance 2, viz., SG SO DL, Instance 3, viz., SG DO SL, and Instance 4, viz., SG DO DL; but no case of Instance 1 : SG SO SL, exists. This means that hardly any borrowing of auxiliaries has taken place at all. The frequency of occurrences of sub-classes of auxiliaries is shown in Table XII below.

TABLE XII
OCCURRENCES OF SUB-CLASSES OF AUXILIARIES

Instance	Pre-Negator Auxiliary	Non-negated Auxiliary
1	-	-
2	One	-
3	Abundant	Few
4	Few	One

1. Instance 2 : SG SO DL

Pre-negator auxiliaries

One pair of pre-negator auxiliaries can be listed under Instance 2. The forms in the two languages are sufficiently close to one another for them to be established as SO, but the meanings are slightly different.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//kuəŋ//	'continually'
<u>Thai</u>	/khonj/	'probably'

2. Instance 3 : SG DO SL

a) Pre-negator auxiliaries

The majority of the pre-negator auxiliaries falls into Instance 3 in the comparison. The very similar constructions of complex auxiliaries in the two languages are easily noticeable, particularly with reference to the second components.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//nuŋj//	/cə/	will, shall
//kəmpuŋ-təe//	/kəmləŋj/	in the middle of...ing
//stɿ:-təe//	/kəmləŋj-cə/	to be going to
//bɑ:n-təe//	/phiəŋj-tɛ:/	only
//ʔɑ:laj-təe//	/muə-tɛ:/	keep on..., to busy oneself with
//nɿu-təe//	/yən/, /yən-khonj/	still, continually
//muk-təe//	/khonj/, /khonj-cə/, /nâ:-cə/	may, probably
//hiəp-təe//	/cuən-cə/, /chǎk/	tend to, to be inclined to
//sɿŋj-təe//	/kʰuəp/, /kʰuəp-cə/, /thɛ:p-cə/, /rim-cə/	almost
//təəŋj-təe//, //rɛ:ŋj-təe//, //cəmməŋ-təe//, //rəmə:ŋj-təe//	/mǎk-cə/	usually

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//tɿ:p-tæ//, //tɿ:p-nuŋ//, /phɿŋ-cə/, /phɿŋ/ //tɿ:p-tæ-nuŋ//		have just
//prəhæɛl-ci:ə//	/hɛn-cə/	perhaps

b) Non-negated auxiliaries

There are only a few non-negated auxiliaries in either language. Those which have been found in Instance 3, viz., SG DO SL, are listed below.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//co:l//	/coŋ/	do!
//kom//	/yà:/	don't!
//so:m//	/prò:t/	please...
//ʔɑ:nvɿt//	/kərunɑ:/, /chûey/	be so kind as to...

3. Instance 4 : SG DO DL

Pre-negator auxiliaries

There are only few pre-negator auxiliaries that occur in one language with no equivalents in the other.

Pre-negator auxiliaries occurring in Cambodian only

//srap-tæ//	'immediately, suddenly'
//rwt-tæ//, //kan-tæ//	'increasingly'

Pre-negator auxiliaries occurring in Thai only

/kɿ:t/, /kɿ:t-cə/	'to happen to'
/di:-tɛ:/, /di:-tɛ:-cə/	'to be good for nothing but'

B. NEGATORS

The function of the negators in Cambodian and Thai as verb markers occurring before verbs and after auxiliaries are identical. They occasionally occur as verbal linkers. The negators are comparable under Instance 3 : SG DO SL and Instance 4 : SG DO DL. The frequency of occurrence of these negators is shown in Table XIII below.

TABLE XIII
OCCURRENCES OF SUB-CLASSES OF NEGATORS

Instance	One-word Negator	Complex Negator
1	-	-
2	-	-
3	Few	Few
4	-	Few

1. Instance 3 : SG DO SLa) One-word negators

There are three Cambodian negators which correspond to the Thai counterparts. The first member in either language,

i.e. //mun// and /mây/ occur more frequently than the others.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//mun//, //pum//, //ʔɿt//	'not, do not'
<u>Thai</u>	/mây/, /míʔ/	'not, do not'.

b) Complex negators

The complex negators in both languages give not just a straightforward negation to the succeeding verbs they occur with, they also add a slight implication or overtone to the verbs. The second components of the complex negators occur with such implied meanings only when combining with the negator. When occurring by themselves, these second components have other meanings.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//mun-so:v// (not--ought to)	'not very, hardly'
<u>Thai</u>	/mây-sû:/, /mây-khây/ (not--to fight), (not--lightly)	'not very, hardly'
<u>Cambodian</u>	//mun-mɛ:n// (not--true)	'not, do not'
<u>Thai</u>	/mây-dâ:y/* (not--to get)	'not, do not'

* Note that this form coincides with the complex of the negator with an initiating verb /mây dâ:y/ which corresponds to the Cambodian //mun bɑ:n// meaning 'not to get the chance to, not already'. Compare the two following sentences :

/khǎw mây-dâ:y yǎ:k pen thəhǎ:n/ 'He doesn't want to be a soldier.'
(he--not--want--to be--soldier)

/khǎw mây dâ:y pay bɑ:n/ 'He has not got a chance to return home.'
(he--not--to get a chance--to go--home).

<u>Cambodian</u>	//khmi:ən//*	'not, there are not'
<u>Thai</u>	/mây-mi:/	'not, there are not'
	(not--to have)	

2. Instance 4 : SG DO DL

Complex negators

The complex negators which do not correspond lexically to one another in the two languages are listed below.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//mun-təən//	'not yet'
	//mun-bac//	'not necessary to'
	/mun-ci:ə/	'not to be'
<u>Thai</u>	/mây-chv:ŋ/	'not, not quite'
	/mây-hěn/	'not, not care to'
	/mây-yák/	'strangely enough not'

C. INITIATING VERBS

Nine initiating verbs have been found in each of the two languages, one falling under Instance 1 : SG SO SL, six under Instance 3 : SG DO SL, and two in either language falling under Instance 4 : SG DO DL.

* This is an alternative form of //mun-mi:ən// 'not to have'.

1. Instance 1 : SG SO SL

<u>Cambodian</u>	/ku:ə/	'ought to'
<u>Thai</u>	/khuən/	'ought to'

2. Instance 3 : SG DO SL

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//dæel//	/khɤ:y/	to have ever
//tro:v//	/tɕŋ/	to have to
//hi:ən//	/ʔɔ:t/	to dare to
//bɑ:n//	/dɔ:y/	to have a chance to, to have already
//prɔ:m//	/yɔ:m/	to agree to
//khom//	/phəyɑ:yɑ:m/	to try hard to

3. Instance 4 : SG DO DL

<u>Cambodian</u>	//lɔ://	'to try to'
	//tɔŋ//	'to begin to'
<u>Thai</u>	/nɔ:/	'to be likely to, rather'
	/phlɔ:y/	'to follow without thinking'

The meanings 'to try to' and 'to begin to' are expressed in Thai by means of operative verbs, /lɔ:ŋ/ and /rɤ:m/ respectively, while the meanings 'to be likely to' and 'to follow without thinking' are expressed in Cambodian by means of the adverbials //prəsæ ci:əŋ// and //tɑ:m ke:// respectively.

D. OPERATIVE VERBS

The problem of comparing the operative verbs in the two languages is the same as that met with in the comparison of nouns in that the terms are too numerous to be compared and an exhaustive comparison can hardly be expected. However, an attempt has been made to exemplify a wide range of Cambodian verbs with their correspondences in Thai under various Instance codes set out previously. The comparison does not represent the frequency of occurrences and, therefore, no table will be shown for the occurrences of these verbs. A fair number of examples is provided for each Instance.

1. Instance 1 : SG SO SL

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//khwt//	/khít/	to think
//nmk//	/núk/	to think
//dæə//	/dɤ:n/	to walk
//kɔ:-sɑ:ŋ//	/kɔ:-sâ:ŋ/	to construct
//bontuk//	/banthúk/	to load
//niməən//	/nímon/	to invite (a monk)
//səoy//	/səvř:y/	to eat, to drink (Royal Terminology)
//sdəc//	/sədèt/	to go, to walk (Royal Terminology)
//tv:n// (Royal Terminology)	/tũ:n/	to be awakened to awaken

2. Instance 2 : SG SO DL

<u>Cambodian</u>	//kə:y//	'to watch'
<u>Thai</u>	/khə:y/	'to wait'
<u>Cambodian</u>	//prəyət//	'to be diligent, to take care'
<u>Thai</u>	/prəyət/	'to be thrifty, to be frugal'
<u>Cambodian</u>	//prəməəl//	'to look from afar'
<u>Thai</u>	/prəmə:n/	'to estimate'
<u>Cambodian</u>	//bəmron//	'to have the intention'
<u>Thai</u>	/bəmrun/	'to take care of, to improve'
<u>Cambodian</u>	//ʔussa://	'to have a habit of'
<u>Thai</u>	/ʔutsə:/	'to try hard'

3. Instance 3 : SG DO SL

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//dɤk//	/phɑ:/	to lead
//pəəm//	/khə:p/	to carry in one's mouth
//yu:ə//	/hīw/	to carry an article (by its handle) so that it hangs down from one's hand
//pun//	/səphɑ:y/	to carry an article so that it hangs on one's shoulder
//rɛ:k//	/hə:p/	to carry articles or bundles by tying them to two ends of a rod which is then placed across one's shoulder
//li://	/bɛ:k/	to carry things on one's shoulder
//lɤ:k//	/yðk/	to lift up things by hand

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//tu:l//	/thu:n/	to carry on one's head
//bʁy//	/hə:p/	to hold and carry in one's arms
//pə://	/ʔəm/	to carry (a child) on one's waist
//kəndiət//	/krədīət/	to carry on one's hip
//kən//	/thǎ:/	to hold, carry in one's hand, to believe
//yə:k//	/yīp/	to take (up) in the hands
//nəəm//	/cu:ŋ/	to lead by the hand
//kət//	/tət/	to cut (small things)
//vəəh//	/phət:/	to cut open
//cho:t//	/krī:t/	to cut but not through, to slash
//ciə//	/kən/, /ciən/	to trim
//kəp//	/fən/	to chop, to cut through
//puənleəh//	/lê:/	to cut one part out of the other part, e.g. cut flesh away from skin, bones, etc.
//hən//	/səp/	to chop in quick and continual motion

E. RETRO-ACTIVE VERBS

Most retro-active verbs fall under Instance 3 :SG DO SL in the comparison; one example is found under Instance 1 : SG SO SL. The succeeding actors are listed together with the verbs

in the examples illustrated below to show the retro-active nature of the verbs.

1. Instance 1 : SG SO SL

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
// <u>kæ</u> t ro:k-chlɔ:ŋ// (to happen--epidemic)	/ <u>kɤ̌</u> :t rɔ̌:k-rɛbɔ̌:t/ (to happen--epidemic)	the epidemic spreads out

2. Instance 3 : SG DO SL

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
// <u>ce</u> :ŋ phkɑ:ŋ// (to come out--flower)	/ <u>ʔɔ̌</u> :k dɔ̌:k/ (to come out--flower)	to bloom
// <u>chm</u> : kbɑ:l// (to be ill--head)	/ <u>pū</u> et hŭə/ (to ache--head)	to have a headache
// <u>ʔɔ̌</u> s kəmləŋ// (to be used up-- strength)	/ <u>mō</u> t kəmləŋ/ (to be used up-- strength)	to be exhausted
// <u>də</u> l məŋ// (to arrive--hour)	/ <u>thū</u> ŋ we:lɑ:/ (to arrive--time)	the time has come
// <u>nɤ</u> do:ŋ// (to be left--coconut)	/ <u>lū</u> ə məphrɑ:w/ (to be left--coconut)	coconuts are left
// <u>thum</u> klɤn-tuk-ʔɔ̌p// (to be fragrant--smell --perfume)	/ <u>hɔ̌</u> :m klɤn-nɑ:m-ʔɔ̌p/ (to be fragrant--smell --perfume)	to smell of perfume
// <u>læ</u> ŋ thləy// (to go up--price)	/ <u>khū</u> n rɑ:kha:/ (to go up--price)	the price (of things) is up
// <u>vɤ</u> l muk// (to turn round--head)	/ <u>wien</u> hŭə/ (to turn round--head)	to feel dizzy, giddy

There are a few Cambodian verbs which occur as retro-active verbs and of which the equivalents in Thai are simply operative verbs. They are therefore exceptional words which cannot be assigned to any Instance code set up for simple items.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//bæk pɛ:ŋ/ (to break--glass)	/kê:w tɛ:k/ (glass--to be broken)	a glass is broken
//du:əl dɔ:p/ (to fall--bottle)	/khɨət lɔm/ (bottle--to fall)	a bottle fell over
//ho: chi:əm/ (to flow--blood)	/lɨət lǎy/ (blood--to flow)	the blood flows, to bleed
//bat prak/ (to lose--money)	/ŋɯn hǎ:y/ (money--to be lost)	the money is lost
//khvæk phnæk/ (to be blind--eye)	/tɑ: bɔ:t/ (eye--to be blind)	to be blind
//cok dǎy/ (to be amputated-- hand)	/mɯ: duən/ (hand--to be amputated)	to be amputated of hand
//træciək-thlɔŋ/ (ear--to be deaf)	/hǔ: nɨək/ (ear--to be deaf)	to be deaf

F. ADJECTIVAL VERBS

Examples of adjectival verbs compared under various Instances, with the exception of Instance 4, are illustrated in this section.

1. Instance 1 : SG SO SL

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//thəmədɑː//	/thəmmədɑː/	common
//bɔːreboː//	/bɔːribuːn/	complete
//dɑc-khɑːt//	/dèt-khɑːt/	absolute
//khlaː-hɑːn//	/klɑː-hǎːn/	brave
//chlɑːt//	/chəldɑːt/	clever
//sɲɔp//	/səŋɔp/	calm
//thəok//	/thūːk/	cheap
//pirueh//	/phayrɔʔ/	beautiful (of sound)

2. Instance 2 : SG SO DL

The following adjectival verbs appear to have different meanings in Cambodian and Thai, but their forms and functions are the same.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//sɑːhɑːv//	'fierce'
<u>Thai</u>	/sǎːmhǎːw/	'rude'
<u>Cambodian</u>	//kɑːc//	'naughty'
<u>Thai</u>	/kɑːt/	'fierce, wicked'
<u>Cambodian</u>	//sɲiəm//	'speechless'
<u>Thai</u>	/səŋiəm/	'quiet, modest'
<u>Cambodian</u>	//sraːl//	'released, light'
<u>Thai</u>	/səraːn/	'happy'
<u>Cambodian</u>	//sɑumɔːŋ//	'worried'

<u>Thai</u>	/sǎw-mǎ:ŋ/	'sad'
<u>Cambodian</u>	//khiəv//	'blue'
<u>Thai</u>	/khǐəw/	'green'

3. Instance 3 : SG DO SL

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//cu://	/prǐəw/	sour
//cət//	/fǎ:t/	astrigent (in taste)
//lvi:ŋ//	/khǓm/	bitter
//hi://	/phǎt/	hot (as chilli)
//kdau//	/rǎ:n/	hot (by temperature)
//crənæn//	/ʔǐtchǎ:/	jealous, to envy
//prəcən//	/hǔŋ/	jealous (of husband, wife, lovers)
//trəcæk//	/yən/	cool
//rəŋi:ə//	/nǎ:w/	cold

G. VERBAL LINKERS

All verbal linkers found occurring in the two languages can be compared under Instance 1, viz. SG SO SL, and Instance 3, viz. SG DO SL.

1. Instance 1 : SG SO SL

Co-ordinate verbal linkers

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//rw://	/rǔ:/	or

2. Instance 3 : SG DO SLa) Co-ordinate verbal linkers

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//nwnj//, //hæy nwnj//	/lɛːw/, /lɛːw kɛː/, /lɛːw/	and, and then

b) Sub-ordinate verbal linkers

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//ʔəoy//	/həy/	so as to, in order to
//nwnj//	/cə/	will, then
//təel-tæ//	/con/, /krəthəŋ/, /con-krəthəŋ/	till, until
//cwt-nwnj//, //hiəp-nwnj//	/kɛp/, /cuən/, /kɛp-cə/, /cuən-cə/	almost

H. COMPLETIVE VERBS

As pointed out in Section A.8 of Chapter VIII on grammatical comparison, any verb which occurs in the second position of the main verb complex with or without a verbal linker, and which lexically expresses the idea of result or completion with respect to the first verb, will be called a completive verb. Most verbs defined elsewhere as operative verbs and adjectival verbs can occur with such a function and be classed as completive verbs. In fact, there is no need to compare the lexical usages of the completive verbs separately from the operative or adjectival verbs. However,

the lexical relations between the verbs that co-occur in the two positions (i.e. the main verb and its completive verb) in Cambodian and Thai are strikingly similar. It is therefore interesting to illustrate some examples of such parallel lexical relations. In the examples presented below, the completive verbs in the two languages will be arranged under Instances 1 and 3, since examples of Instances 2 and 4 are not found.

1. Instance 1 : SG SO SL

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//- co:k//	/-chô:k/	-to be soaking wet
//tətuk co:k// (wet--soaking wet)	/piək chô:k/ (wet--soaking wet)	to be soaking wet
//-srac//	/-sêt/	-finished
//thvɜ: srac// (to do--finished)	/tham sêt/ (to do--finished)	finish doing, finish working
//pam srac// (to eat--finished)	/kin sêt/ (to eat--finished)	finish eating
//sə:se: srac// (to write--finished)	/khien sêt/ (to write--finished)	finish writing
//kwt srac// (to think--finished)	/khit sêt/ (to think--finished)	finish thinking
//-təen//	/-than/	-to catch up
//tvu təen// (to go--to catch up)	/pay than/ (to go--to catch up)	to go in good time

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//mɔ:k tɔɛn// (to come--to catch up)	/mɔ: than/ (to come--to catch up)	to come in time, to arrive in time
//riɛn tɔɛn// (to study--to catch up)	/riɛn than/ (to study--to catch up)	to catch up with the class
//cɔp tɔɛn// (to catch--to catch up)	/cɔp than/ (to catch--to catch up)	to be able to catch
//thvɜ: tɔɛn// (to do--to catch up)	/tham than/ (to do--to catch up)	to be able to finish doing something in time

2. Instance 3 : SG DO SL

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//-khv:p//	/-hɛn/	-to see
//mɜ:l khv:p// (to look--to see)	/mɔ:ŋ hɛn/ (to look--to see)	to see
//nɔk khv:p// (to think--to see)	/nɔk hɛn/ (to think--to see)	think of, have a thought occur to one
//rɔ:k khv:p// (to look for--to see)	/hɔ: hɛn/ (to look for--to see)	to find
//kɔt khv:p// (to think--to see)	/khit hɛn/ (to think--to see)	to think
//nimmut khv:p// (to dream--to see)	/fɔn hɛn/ (to dream--to see)	to see in one's dream

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//-lw://	/-dâyyin/	-to hear
//sdap lw:// (to listen--to hear)	/fan dâyyin/ (to listen--to hear)	to hear
//-dol//	/-thŭŋ/	-to reach, to arrive
//mɔ:k dol// (to come--to reach)	/mɔ: thŭŋ/ (to come--to reach)	to arrive (here)
//tvu dol// (to go--to reach)	/paj thŭŋ/ (to go--to reach)	to arrive (there)
//-tro:v//	/-thŭ:k/	-to hit
//ban tro:v// (to shoot--to hit)	/yŋ thŭ:k/ (to shoot--to hit)	to shoot right, to hit a target
//-tro:v//	/-thŭ:k/	-to hit, to be right, correct
//cak tro:v// (to stab--to hit)	/thɛ:ŋ thŭ:k/ (to stab--to hit)	to stab right
//kmt tro:v// (to think--correct)	/khít thŭ:k/ (to thin--correct)	to think correctly
//yuel tro:v// (to understand-- correct)	/khâw-cay thŭ:k/ (to understand-- correct)	to understand correctly
//thvɛ: tro:v// (to do--correct)	/tham thŭ:k/ (to do--correct)	to do right
//crieŋ tro:v// (to sing--correct)	/rɔ:ŋ thŭ:k/ (to sing--correct)	to sing correctly
//-khos//	/-phít/	-to be wrong, incorrect

//khos// and /phît/ can occur with the same range of operative verbs as do //tro:v// and /thù:k/

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//-ch?æet//	/-?îm/	-to be full up
//pam ch?æet// (to eat--full up)	/kin ?îm/ (to eat--full up)	to be full up (with food)
//de:k ch?æet// (to sleep--full up)	/nə:n ?îm/ (to sleep--full up)	to have a sound sleep
//mɿ:l ch?æet// (to look--full up)	/du: ?îm/ (to look--full up)	to be satisfied with looking
//sɔp ch?æet// (to listen--full up)	/fəŋ ?îm/ (to listen--full up)	to be satisfied with listening
//sæc ch?æet// (to laugh--full up)	/hǎerǎ? ?îm/ (to laugh--full up)	to have a good laugh
//yum ch?æet// (to cry--full up)	/rǎ:ŋhây ?îm/ (to cry--full up)	to have a good cry
//-phot//	/-phôn/	-to be beyond, over, clear, free from
//ciəs phot// (to avoid--beyond)	/lî:k phôn/ (to avoid--beyond)	to escape
//ruet phot// (to run--beyond)	/nǐ: phôn/ (to run--beyond)	to escape
//-ru:ec//	/-dâ:y/	-to be able to
//hæel re:ec// (to swim--able to)	/wâ:y-nâ:m dâ:y/ (to swim--able to)	to be able to swim

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//ʔəŋkuy ru:əc// (to sit--able to)	/nəŋ dā:y/ (to sit--able to)	to be able to sit
//-luək//	/-lāp/	-to fall asleep
//de:k luək// (to lie down--fall asleep)	/no:n lāp/ (to lie down--fall asleep)	to sleep
//-kæət//	/-ʔə:k/	-to be able to
//thə: kæət// (to speak--able to)	/phū:t ʔə:k/ (to speak--able to)	to be able to speak
//kūt kæət// (to think--able to)	/khūt ʔə:k/ (to think--able to)	to be able to think

I. POST-VERBS

Eight post-verbs have been found in Cambodian and twelve in Thai; they fall under Instance 3 and Instance 4 in the comparison. The English equivalents given below are not a direct translation; they only give a rough implication of the sense that the post-verbs are used to give.

1. Instance 3 : SG DO SL

All Cambodian post-verbs have the same meaning as their corresponding forms in Thai.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//tru// (to go)	/pəy/ (to go)	to, towards (there, thither)

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//mə:k// (to come)	/mə:/ (to come)	to, towards (here, hither)
//ləŋ// (to go up)	/khŋn/ (to go up)	upwards
//coh// (to go down)	/lon/ (to go down)	downwards
//coh// (to go down)	/khâw/ (to enter)	then (inceptive, start...)
//tuk// (to keep)	/wáy/ (to keep)	for the time being, away, awhile
//mɿ:l// (to look)	/du:/ (to look)	perhaps, see whether..., try out...
//nɿu// (to stay)	/yù:/ (to stay)	still
//ʔəoy// (to give)	/hây/ (to give)	for, on behalf of

2. Instance 4 : SG DO DL

Some post-verbs occur in Thai and seem to have no Cambodian equivalents :-

<u>Thai</u>	/ʔə̌k/ (to go out)	'quite'
	/ʔəw/ (to take)	'just, go on...'
	/sǎ̌/ (to lose)	'better do now (a mild order)'

J. ADVERBIALS

The lexical comparison of adverbials in Cambodian and Thai results in the frequency of occurrences of their sub-classes as shown in Table XIV below. Although the members of adverbials are numerous in each sub-class, a comprehensive comparison is still possible.

Table XIV
OCCURRENCES OF SUB-CLASSES OF ADVERBIALS

Instance	Adverbial Marker	Adverbial		
		Pre-Verb Adverbial	Post-Verb Adverbial	General Adverbial
1	Moderate	Rare	Rare	Moderate
2	-	-	-	-
3	Abundant	-	Abundant	Abundant
4	-	Few	Rare	-

1. Instance 1 : SG SO SLa) Adverbial markers

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//yɑ:ɲ//	/yɑ:ɲ/	in the manner of, —ly
//tɑ:m//	/tɑ:m/	as, following, according to, along
//trɔŋ//	/trɔŋ/	at

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//khɑ:ŋ//	/khǎ:ŋ/	on the side of
//daoy//	/do:y/	by
//do:c//	/dūt/	like, as

b) Pre-verb adverbials

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//saen//	/sǎ:n/	extremely

c) Post-verb adverbials

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//rwey-rwey//	/rŭey-rŭey/	continually, on and on

d) General adverbials

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//ʔɑ:tut nih//	/ʔɑ:thít ní:/	this week
//ʔɑti:təka:l//	/ʔɑdī:ttəka:n/	in the past
//ti:nih//	/thī:nī:/	here
//nih//	/nī:/	here

Name of day, month, year :

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//thŋay <u>can</u> //	/wan <u>can</u> /	Monday
//thŋay ʔəŋki:ə//	/wan ʔəŋkha:n/	Tuesday
etc.	etc.	
//khæe <u>məəkəra:</u> //	/dwən <u>mókkəra:khom</u> /	January

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//khæə <u>kompheə</u> //	/dʉən <u>kumphə:phən</u> /	February
etc.	etc.	
//chnəm <u>cu:t</u> //	/pi: <u>chŭet</u> /	year of the rat
//chnəm <u>chlo:v</u> //	/pi: <u>chəlŭ:</u> /	year of the ox
etc.	etc.	

2. Instance 3 : SG DO SL

a) Adverbial markers

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//bæp//	/yǎ:ŋ/	in the manner of
//dɔɔy//, //tɛəŋ//	/dŭəy/	with
//dɔɔy//	/yǎ:ŋ/	with
//ci:ə//	/pen/	as
//pi://, //təŋ pi://	/cǎ:k/, /tɛ:/, /təŋ tɛ:/	from, since
//tɔ: pi://	/tɔ: cǎ:k/	continue from, from
//pe:l//, //kɑ:l pi://	/mŭe/, /tɔ:n/, /we:lɑ:/	when, at, on
//cwt dɔl//	/kŭəp/, /klɔy/	near to, nearly
//mɔ:k dɔl//	/rɑ:w/, /rɑ:w rɑ:w/	about
//dɔl//	/thŭŋ/, /thŭŋ we:lɑ:/	up to, to
//dəɾɑ:p dɔl//	/con/, /con thŭŋ/	up to
//mun//, //mun nŭŋ//	/kɔ:n/, /kɔ:n cə/	before

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//krup//, //səp//, //rəel//, //rəel tae//	/thúk/, /thón/, /thūen/	all, inclusive
//riəŋ rəel//	/thúk thúk/	every
//ʔae//, //nɿu ʔae//	/thî:/	at
//knoŋ//, //nɿu//, //nɿu knoŋ//	/nəy/, /thî: nəy/, /khâ:ŋ nəy/	in
//krau//	/nŕ:k/, /khâ:ŋ nŕ:k/	out of
//lɿ:/	/bon/	on
//kraom//, //nɿu kraom//	/tŕy/	under
//ʔaep//, //nɿu cwt//	/chít/	near, close to
//chŋa:y pi:/	/klay ca:k/	far from
//kan//	/sū:/, /yən/	towards
//kraoy//	/lăŋ/	after, at the back of, behind
//kha:ŋ//	/tha:ŋ/, /būen/	on the side of, towards

b) Pre-verb adverbials

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//prəhæel-ci:ə//	/ba:ŋthi:/	sometimes

c) Post-verb adverbials

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//khni:ə//	/kan/	together, mutually
//ci:ə-mu:əy//	/dūay-kan/	together

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//ci:əŋ//	/kwǎ:/	more, to a greater extent
//do:cneh//, //mleh//	/yǎ:ŋ-ní:/, /yǎŋŋí:/	such, like this
//do:cnəh//, //mləh//, //mlvŋ//	/yǎ:ŋ-nán/, /yǎŋŋán/	like that, so
//do:c-mdec//, //mec//	/yǎ:ŋray/, /yǎŋŋay/	how
//nəs//	/nák/, /yîŋ-nák/	very much, really
//bontec//	/nít/, /nôy/, /nít-nôy/	a little, a little while
//bontec-bontec//, //bontec-bontu:əc//	/nít-nôy/, /nít-nít-nôy-nôy/	a little, to a small extent
//ponnəh//	/thâw-nán/	that's all, like that, as much as that
//ponneh//	/thâw-ní:/	like this, as much as this
//phli:əm//	/thanthi:/	immediately
//mun//	/kô:n/	beforehand
//krəoy//	/lǎŋ/, /thi:-lǎŋ/	afterwards
//ŋukŋə:y//	/bôy/, /bôy-bôy/	often
//yu:t-yu:t//	/chá:/, /chá:-chá:/	slowly
//yu:-yu://	/nɑ:n/, /nɑ:n-nɑ:n/	long, for a long time
//puənpe:k//, //kray-lɛ:ŋ//	/yîŋ/, /lǔə-kv:n/	very, extremely
//həəy//	/lé:w/	already

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//tsəŋ-srəŋ//	/thi:-diəw/ /thi:-diəw-chiəw/	quite
//cræn//	/mā:k/	a lot

The adverbial complexes below are built up by the combination of two adverbial markers or of two verbs, of which the first members in each pair are comparable under Instance 1, the last under Instance 3.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//khɑ:ŋ muk//	/khɑ:ŋ nɑ:/	in front
//khɑ:ŋ krɑoy//	/khɑ:ŋ lǎŋ/	behind
//khɑ:ŋ lɿ://	/khɑ:ŋ bon/	above
//khɑ:ŋ kraom//	/khɑ:ŋ tɑy/	underneath
//khɑ:ŋ krau//	/khɑ:ŋ nɑ:k/	outside
//khɑ:ŋ knoŋ//	/khɑ:ŋ nɑy/	inside
//tə: tɿu//	/tə: pay/	continually from a point of time onwards
//tə: mɑ:k//	/tə: mɑ:/	continually up to now, continuing one after the other
//tə: tə: tɿu//	/tə: tə: pay/	all the time from a point of time onwards
//tə: tə: mɑ:k//	/tə: tə: mɑ:/	all the time up to now, continuing in constant succession

The adverbials listed below occur in pairs. They are comparable under Instance 3.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//... kə: dəy ...kə: dəy//	'whether...or'
<u>Thai</u>	/... kə: tɑ:m ...kə: tɑ:m/	'whether...or'
<u>Cambodian</u>	//... kəy ... kəy//	'or...or'
<u>Thai</u>	/... kə: di: ... kə: di:/	'or...or'
<u>Cambodian</u>	//... bəndəə...bəndəə//	'simultaneously'
<u>Thai</u>	/... phlɑ:ŋ ... phlɑ:ŋ/	'simultaneously'

d) General adverbials

The general adverbials to be compared under Instance 3 here are all time expressions. The components of each expression correspond lexically to one another, and the overall meanings of the expression are the same.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//prelum lw:// (dawn--bright)	/chǎ:w-trù:/ (dawn)	at dawn
//pe:l pruk// (time--morning)	/tə:n chǎ:w/ (time--morning)	in the morning
//pe:l rəsəl// (time--afternoon)	/tə:n bǎ:y/ /we:lɑ: bǎ:y/ (time--afternoon)	in the afternoon
//pe:l lŋi:əc// (time--evening)	/tə:n yen/ /we:lɑ: yen/ (time--evening)	in the evening

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//pe:l yup// (time--night)	/tɔ:n khâm/ /we:lɑ: khâm/ (time--night)	at night
//ʔylo:v nih// (now--this)	/dĕw ní:/ (now--this)	now
//mu:ey stuh// (one--moment)	/khrŭ: num/ (moment--one)	a moment
//thŋay ti:-sɑ:msɤp// (day--thirtieth)	/wan thĭ:-sǎ:m-sĭp/ (day--thirtieth)	the thirtieth day (of month)
//putthəsakrɑ:c pi: pœn pram rɔ:y buən-dəndɔp// (Buddhist era-- two--thousand--five hundred--fourteen)	/phŭtthəsǎkkəɔ:t sǎ:ŋ phan hǎ: rɔ:y sĭp-sĭ:/ (Buddhist era-- two--thousand--five hundred--fourteen)	the year 2514 B.E.

3. Instance 4 : SG DO DL

The meanings given in a), b), and c) below may of course be expressed in the other language but they are expressed by different grammatical means.

a) Pre-verb adverbials

<u>Thai</u>	
/chǎ:ŋ/	'what a...!, how...!'
/bǎŋʔɤ:n/	'accidentally, by chance'
/do:y-mǎ:k/	'mostly'
/nǎ:-klue/ (ought to--afraid)	'probably'
/mi: wǎŋ/ (to have--hope)	'probably'
/yĭŋ..., yĭŋ/	'the more..., the more...'

b) Post-verb adverbials

<u>Cambodian</u>	//mɤ:l tɤu//	'perhaps'
	//mec kæt//	'how'
	//prɛɲɤp prɛɲɔɐp//	'quickly'
	//ʔɔŋkɑ:l//	'when?'

c) General adverbials

<u>Cambodian</u>	//sʔæk//	'tomorrow'
	//thŋɔy tɾoŋ//	'noon'
<u>Thai</u>	/m̌æɾɔy/	'when?'
	/thǎmmɔy/	'why?'

K. VERB CLASSIFIERS

Some difficulty is met with in collecting all the words that can occur as verb classifiers. For one reason, a verb classifier has a very close lexical relationship with the verb it modifies; an attempt to collect all such verbs in the two languages is not made in the present work. For another reason, it is found that there are plenty of verbs that can co-occur with many verb classifiers, and the verb classifiers which are onomatopoeic or imitative can be realized in many forms. One can find, for example, all the constructs given below very widely used for some such English equivalent as 'to write twice'.

The verb classifiers in the examples below are all underlined.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//sɔ:se: pi: <u>dɔ:ŋ</u> //	'to write twice'
	//sɔ:se: pi: <u>lɤ:k</u> //	-do-
	//sɔ:se: pi: <u>kri:ə</u> //	-do-
	//sɔ:se: pi: <u>khwa:k</u> //	-do-
	//sɔ:se: pi: <u>srəbək</u> //	-do-
<u>Thai</u>	/khǎen sǎ:ŋ <u>hǎn</u> /	'to write twice'
	/khǎen sǎ:ŋ <u>khraŋ</u> /	-do-
	/khǎen sǎ:ŋ <u>khra:w</u> /	-do-
	/khǎen sǎ:ŋ <u>thi:</u> /	-do-
	/khǎen sǎ:ŋ <u>krək</u> /	-do-
	/khǎen sǎ:ŋ <u>chək</u> /	-do-

The comparison below is carried out among the very common verb classifiers found in novels and poetic works in the two languages.

1. Instance 1 : SG SO SL

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//cɔp//	/còp/	completion, through to the end

2. Instance 3 : SG DO SL

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//dɔ:ŋ//	/khraŋ/, /thi:/, /hǎn/	time

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//lɿ:k//	/khɿɑ:w/	attempt, occasion
//cʊm//, //trəlop//	/rɿ:p/	round, circle, rotation
//ʔɒnlu:ŋ//	/tɯp/	stroke (of a hammer)
//tʉk//	/yɔk/	round (of boxing)
//lbək//	/ŋɿ:p/	nap
//kriə//	/thiəw/	time, round

L. FINAL PARTICLES

When Cambodian and Thai final particles are compared, it is found that they agree only so far as the comparison of word - classes is concerned. When it comes to each particular term, there is hardly any agreement between them. As noted in Section A.12 of Chapter VIII, many final particles can occur in sequence with a fixed word-order and can therefore be classified into sub-classes by reference to the order of their maximum occurrences. But although there are many final particles with similar forms and with the same meanings, corresponding memberships of each of these sub-classes are not comparable. The comparison to be presented in this section will therefore be based on the word-class level and not the level of the sub-class.

1. Instance 1 : SG SO SL

There are two pairs of words in this Instance; one often co-occurs with the negator, the other has a grammatical function as interrogative particle.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//læy//	/lɛ:y/	at all
//rw://, //te: rw://	/rɯ://, /rɤ://, /rɔʔ/	(interrogative particle)

2. Instance 3 : SG DO SL

The majority of final particles belong to this Instance, as expected from any two basically non-related languages.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//sɤn//	/sɨh/, /sáh/	then! go on!
//nɔh//	/thɤʔ/, /thɤʔ/	do as such
//te: rw://	/rɯ:/	is that so?
//rw: te://	/ŋán rɔʔ/, /rɤʔ/	is that so? (surprised)
//te: tæ//	/ŋán sɨh/	so...then!
//dæ//	/máŋ/	too, as well, in similar manner
//te://	/rɔk/	not so (after negative)
//te: dɤŋ//	/ŋáɤ/	as you know

3. Instance 4 : SG DO DL

The final particles which do not show similar forms and meanings are listed here as examples of non-comparable items.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//səh//	'at all'
	//phə:ŋ//, //hə:ŋ//	'as well, together'
	//tiət//	'further, more'
	//səot//	'too, moreover'
<u>Thai</u>	/nɪ:/, /nɪə/	'that's it!'
	/mǎy/	'(interrogative particles for affirmative sentence only)'
	/si/	'believe me, I think'
	/nǎ/	'isn't it so?'
	/lǎ/, /lǎ/	'I've told you so.'
	/lɛ̃h/	'that's the one.'

The lexical comparison of predicatives as carried out in this chapter results in the allocation of some to Instance 3 : SG DO SL for all classes and some for Instance 1 : SG SO SL for all classes except auxiliaries, negators and post-verbs. Instance 2, viz. SG SO DL, examples may be given for auxiliaries, operative verbs and adjectival verbs. Few examples have been collected for Instance 4 : SG DO DL for all classes except those of verbal linkers, adverbial markers and verb classifiers.

As previously discussed and illustrated in Chapter VIII, the classifications of predicative classes in the two languages are strikingly parallel. The lexical comparison carried out in this chapter emphasizes their parallelism still further. The

points of interest here lie in the range of numerous functions that certain verbs can perform. The Cambodian word //læŋ// and the Thai word /khûn/ meaning 'to go up', for example, occur similarly, each in its own language, as an operative verb and a retro-active verb as well as a post-verb. The Cambodian word //ʔəoy// and the Thai word /həy/ meaning 'to give', both occurring as an operative verb, a verbal linker and as a post-verb, make up another set of examples. The use of a completive verb to explain the result of an action performed by the preceding main verb in the same construct is not only the same in the two languages, but the ranges of main verbs that can co-occur with particular completive verbs appear to be correspondingly similar. The function of post-verbs in giving the direction of movement in the main verb is also characteristic of the verbal usage in Cambodian and Thai. The lexical meaning of these post-verbs and the meaning they convey when occurring as post-verbs in the two languages correspond identically to one another. Moreover, the existence of operative verbs and adjectival verbs showing different shades of vocabulary distribution in the two languages should be taken as an interesting display of the features in common to both Cambodian and Thai through a high degree of cultural exchange.

PART II

CONSTRUCTED ITEMS

CHAPTER X

THE CONSTRUCTION OF COMPOUNDS AND ELABORATIONS

The remaining chapters constitute a comparative study of certain types of construction commonly found in Cambodian and Thai. The study carried out in this chapter will reveal the parallelism of the grammatical and lexical features of these constructed items, as well as the similarities of the grammatical and lexical features of their components.

The constructed items chosen for comparison in this work are of two types, namely, compounds and elaborations. The reasons for selecting these two types of constructions are threefold. Firstly, both types of constructions behave more like single items or words than like constructs, even when more than one word-class is involved and when the underlying grammatical structure is patently observable. Compounds are generally accepted as words, but elaborations in Cambodian and Thai, despite their length, may also be regarded as single items. Both are therefore appropriate for comparison, one whole unit matched against another. Secondly, although the construction of compounds and elaborations is simple and straightforward, the lexical features that play a part in the processes of combination are remarkably diverse, so that a mere statement of their basic function would leave out of account a great deal that is of interest. The diversity of these lexical

combinations occurs in parallel in the two languages. Thirdly, compounds and elaborations are closely connected derivationally one with another. A large number of compounds in both languages are built up by the process of elaboration, and most compounds can, in turn, be elaborated. Compounds and elaborations may therefore be satisfactorily studied side by side. Moreover, these types of construction are still productive; more compounds and elaborations can be produced by analogy with acknowledged ones.

A. CONSTRUCTION OF COMPOUNDS

Constructions which are formed in accordance with certain lexical and syntactical requirements and then, as such forms, are committed to the speakers' memories as new terms, as if they were new words, are called 'Compounds'. They act more like words than other types of construction. The majority of Compounds in Cambodian and Thai are two-word (two component) compounds.

The structure of some acknowledged compounds in Cambodian and Thai coincides with that of various complexes, simple sentences or parts of sentences so closely that, in many cases, the technique of Immediate Constituent analysis has to be applied to assign a particular complex which occurs in a bigger construction to one category or the other. For instance, the complex //nsek thvɿ: kɑ: // in the sentence //nsek thvɿ: kɑ: kɔnlaen nih ru: nvu // in Cambodian,

can be either a compound meaning 'a worker' or a sentence (subject and predicate) meaning 'Men work'. The sentence can be translated as 'The workers are here, aren't they?' or 'Do people work here?'. Similar examples can easily be produced for Thai, for instance, the complex /châ:ŋ tât sŭe/ in the sentence /châ:ŋ tât sŭe khun rŭə?/ can be either a compound meaning 'a tailor' or a sentence meaning 'A tailor makes a dress'. The whole sentence can be interpreted as 'Is he/she your tailor?' or 'Does the tailor make your dress?'.

Some compounds in Cambodian and Thai are definitely derived from regular syntactic constructions justifiably classed at the time of their origin as complexes or sentences (Fasold 1969).⁴⁰ Such complexes or sentences occur so frequently that speakers of either language become used to having them in such combinations. The links between particular words in the combinations become progressively stronger until the words enter into the speakers' memory as compounds, having one meaning and excluding other meanings which would be both possible and normal according to syntax. It is these links that often raise problems in the classification of compounds because their firmness has the nature of a continuum: the relationship between components of a compound can range from a loosely collocational frequency to a firmly indivisible idiom. There will be many degrees of firmness from

one end of the scale to the other. In fact, the boundary between any compound and any common syntactic construction cannot always be precisely demarcated if it falls around the lower limit of the continuum. Furthermore, criteria commonly applied to compounds in other languages, such as those connected with various types of stress patterning or with the possibility of discontinuity, cannot always be applied to the Cambodian and Thai compounds dealt with in the present work. The application of such criteria would, in the case of discontinuity for instance, exclude certain compounds which for stylistic reasons may be interrupted by other words, e.g.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//ko:n-cau// (children--grandchildren)	'younger generation'
	//nəəm ko:n cuəpcu:n cau// (take--children--carry-- grandchildren)	'to take the family'
<u>Thai</u>	/phî:-nó:ŋ/ (older sibling--younger sibling)	'relatives'
	/mây mi: phî: mây mi: nó:ŋ/ (not--have--older sibling-- not--have--younger sibling)	'no relatives'

In this investigation, no attempt will be made to plot values for the continuum mentioned above. Nor will there be any discussion as to when a particular combination should be classified as a compound in one context but a complex in another. This is because these topics have been treated elsewhere by many scholars

using different approaches (Panupong 1970,¹⁶ Udomphol 1964,⁴¹ Huffmann 1967,²⁵ Fasold 1964⁴⁰). However, as a guide for collecting compounds for the two languages for the purposes of comparison, certain simple lexical criteria are used to determine when a complex is to be considered as a compound, whereas certain simple grammatical criteria are used to indicate whether a complex is a compound or not a compound.

1. Lexical Criteria

The following simple lexical criteria help to point out compounds :-

(i) If a complex has a meaning that is idiomatic such that the meaning of the whole combination cannot be easily deduced from the meaning of the components, that complex will then be called a compound, e.g.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//khnə:ŋ-vs:ŋ// (back--long)	/lǎŋ-ya:w/ (back--long)	to be lazy

(ii) If a complex is highly selective in the interpretation of a syntactic relationship, it will be called a compound, e.g.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//kat-khao=ʔa:v// (to cut--trousers and upper garment)	'to tailor' (i.e., measuring, cutting, sewing, etc.)
Contrast	//kat smaʊ// (to cut--grass)	'to cut grass'

<u>Thai</u>	/tât-sâm/	'to tailor' (i.e., measuring, cutting, (to cut--upper garment) sewing, etc.)
Contrast	/tât yâ:/	'to cut grass' (to cut--grass)

(iii) If a complex finds membership in a lexical family of compounds, i.e., if one component is recurrent in other acknowledged compounds, that complex is then a compound, e.g.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//cɤt-lʔɔ:// (heart--good)	/cɤy-di:/ (heart--good)	'to be kind, good-hearted'
//krɯəŋ-prədɔp// (set of instruments-- utensil)	/khrɯəŋ-mu:/ (equipment--hand)	'tools'

(iv) Certain compounds are formed idiomatically with numerals. Such a formation can be tested by substituting another numeral for each of the original ones. If the change of the meaning is greater than the mere change of numbers, and upsets collocational rules, then one may be dealing with compounds, e.g.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//bu:ən-dɔp// (four--ten)	'some'
<u>Thai</u>	/rɔ:y-pê:t/ (hundred--eight)	'miscellaneous'
	/sɔ:ŋ-sǎ:m/ (two--three)	'few'

2. Grammatical Criteria

The following grammatical criteria will help to rule out complexes from being compounds :-

(i) If a complex contains any word from the word-class 'marker/linker', then that complex cannot be a compound. Examples below are not compounds, since they contain verbal linkers (the underlined words).

<u>Cambodian</u>	//thvɿ: ʔəoy srac// (to do--so as to--finished)	'to finish'
<u>Thai</u>	/tham h̄ay s̄et/ (to do--so as to--finished)	'to finish'

(ii) If complexes comprise terms which refer to the speakers themselves or to third persons or which refer to details of direction, position, etc., they must not be classified as compounds because the use of these terms (i.e., pronouns, determinatives, etc.) depends upon the process of communication in a given situation. 'Here' and 'now', 'this' and 'that', 'I' and 'you' are terms of relationship depending on who is who, and who is where, e.g.

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English equivalent</u>
//ko:n khnòm// (child--I)	/lû:k chán/ (child--I)	my child
//ko:n kœt// (child--she)	/lû:k khăw/ (child--she)	her child

On the other hand, the grammatical relation between the components of a complex in both Cambodian and Thai languages, as analysed and discussed in previous chapters, can be used as a guide for probable classification of compounds. Thus a complex which exhibits a grammatical function different from expected patterns may well be suspected of being a compound. For instance, the combination of V + N or V + V would be expected to occur as a verbal construct in the normal verbal pattern in the two languages; if such combinations occur otherwise (e.g. as a noun or adverbial) then they may be regarded as compounds, as demonstrated in examples below :

Cambodian

V + N

//siət phkɑː// 'to tuck flower above the ear'
(to tuck--flower) -- a verbal construct

V + N = N

//siət phkɑː// 'the part above the ear'
(to tuck--flower) -- a compound

Thai

V + N

/thət dōːkmǎy/ 'to tuck flower above the ear'
(to tuck--flower) -- a verbal construct

V + N = N

/thət dōːkmǎy/ 'the part above the ear'
(to tuck--flower) -- a compound

Compounds in Cambodian and Thai will be examined in this work in two dimensions, namely, those of the grammatical function and of the lexical meaning. Grammatically, compounds will be analysed as to their functions in terms of their word-classes as well as the word-classes of their components. Also, the grammatical relationship between the components will be explained. It is the aim of this work to demonstrate the parallelism in the use and the construction of Cambodian and Thai compounds, therefore the grammatical and lexical presentation will lay stress on the similar features that exist between them. This grammatical comparison is presented in Chapter XI. Chapter XII is devoted to the lexical comparison of Cambodian and Thai compounds which express the same meaning. The idea of the comparison is to search for the similarities in the formation of the compounds and in the correlation between their components which occur in the two languages. The components of the compounds will be compared one by one using the same method of three parameters as that used for simple items (see Chapter III).

B. CONSTRUCTION OF ELABORATIONS

The nature of elaborations is to some extent a stylistic procedure used to embellish speech. The Cambodian and Thai languages, though they belong to different families and to different types of languages, use the same procedure in their

speech habits as regards the addition of items that may seem to non-native speakers to be superfluous or redundant. A scholar who studies both languages and reads their literary works will be constantly astonished at the extended style available for explaining simple things by means of rows of words and expressions which convey more or less the same idea and which support one another. He may also be confronted with the flowery style, which uses lots of reduplicated words and synonymous compounds. The following excerpts from modern novels will demonstrate the points made.

Cambodian //phsæŋ thu:p hoy ku:əc læŋ khmu:əl khmaŋ trəbaŋ
 læŋ chv: ?əndæŋ tɾəsæŋ tɾu lv:
?ɑ:kɑ:s ve:hɑ: hoh tɾu
pɔŋ_rw: tɾu_cu:n pɔ:dəmi:ən dɔl
 pepu:ək te:ptɑ: thmɔy//

(Phleng kar prahar duong cett, p.2)⁴²

'The smoke of the joss-sticks rose in spirals
whirling up the tree to float in the sky and fly
 away giving the news to the company of new born gods.'

Thai /thɛ:n thī: ?ɑ:phɑ: cə nŭk raŋkiət rŭ:
du:-thù:k du:-khls:n lɔn kləp khóp kəp
 thv: dāy yǎ:ŋ sənīt-sənǝm/

(Luk phu chai, p. 117)⁴³

'Instead of Apha minding or despising (him), she
 becomes closely acquainted (with him).'

Elaboration is a lengthening process with the intention of modifying the meaning but not changing it. It makes the meaning more or less intensive according to the pattern chosen, but, in all ways draws more attention to itself than the non-elaborated form would receive.

Elaborations can be regarded as one type of compound on the grounds that they produce an idiomatic coordinate complex. One special characteristic of elaborations is that some of the components may be unique 'nonsense' words and that whatever meaning they may acquire will not be different from that of the other components in the compound. It is also by the process of elaboration that many additive compounds are constructed. An elaborated complex occurs in such a combination so often that it is committed to the speakers' memory as a new item and its components, if they occurred separately, would sound unfamiliar, though the separation would not shift the meaning conveyed.

In the present work, elaborations are presented for discussion and comparison in two chapters. The formal study of elaborations in the Cambodian and Thai languages is carried out in Chapter XIII with the aim of demonstrating the similar and different patterns* of elaborations occurring in the two languages.

* These patterns are to be based on lexical combination and not on grammatical features as might be expected.

The lexical study and comparison of the various patterns of lexical combination is presented and discussed in Chapter XIV.

CHAPTER XI
GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS OF COMPOUNDS

The objective of the grammatical analysis of compounds in this chapter is to demonstrate the patterns of compounds and to discuss compound-formation in the Cambodian and Thai languages. As already mentioned in the previous chapter, a compound in the two languages can be recognized rather by its lexical usage than by its grammatical function or its phonological features. The relationship between the components of a compound may be easily deduced from resultant forms in some compounds, but can be ambiguous in others. A procedure based on transformational grammar, to trace back some originally simple syntactic statement from which a compound is derived, is in Cambodian and Thai merely an explanation 'after the event'. In other words, it may satisfy as a definition or rationalization of a given compound and its meaning but does not satisfy as an account of the way all compounds are 'generated'. Furthermore, for a great number of compounds their underlying grammatical structure will reveal little in explanation of the compounds' scope of meaning ; and, since the grammatical terms are general ones, there may be little assistance to be expected from any underlying grammatical derivation in explaining a particular relationship between the components of some compounds. It is, on the other hand, equally

possible and more likely, that a large number of compounds are generated by association, a process primarily based on deep semantic levels, rather than by resorting to syntactical processes. However, the semantic processes may be simplified, shortened or re-systematized in such a way that some sort of syntactical explanation, whether straightforward or circuitous, should be provided if the relationship between the components is to be clearly understood.

There is another way of looking at compounds that is more fruitful for the purposes of comparison. Rather than concentrating on the syntactical bonds that underlie any given compound, the emphasis will be placed upon self-evident features presented by the components of the resultant form. These features are of two dimensions : grammatical and lexical. This chapter will be devoted to the self-evident grammatical features of the resultant forms of compounds. The lexical features will be dealt with in the next chapter.

A. PROCEDURE OF GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS OF COMPOUNDS

Three points for investigation can be made for each compound :
They are

- (i) Word-classes of the compound components
- (ii) Syntactical features of the resultant forms, and
- (iii) Relationship of the components

1. Word-Classes of the Components

The components of a compound can be described as belonging to the same or different word-classes. The word-classes in Cambodian and Thai have already been established in Chapters IV, VI and VIII. Thus, a compound is classified as a 'Homogeneous compound' if its components belong to the same word-class. A compound is called a 'Heterogeneous compound' if its components belong to different word-classes, or one component does not occur elsewhere and therefore cannot be assigned to any word class appropriate to simple items. It must be noted here that the sub-classes of any particular class are not to be considered as different. For instance, a common noun and a mass noun will be considered as homogeneous, whereas a noun and a numeral will be heterogeneous.

The biggest and most open classes of homogeneous compounds are compound nouns and compound verbs. The compound numerals are not to be included in this section because their expandable patterns, their mathematical operations represented by compounding, as well as the lexical comparison between Cambodian and Thai compound numerals have already been discussed and demonstrated in full detail in Section C. of Chapter VII. Three patterns of Cambodian and Thai homogeneous compounds are comparable in this work:

N - N
 Va - Va
 Vo - Vo

The biggest classes of heterogeneous compounds comprise the combination of nouns and verbs. Numerals also occur in combination with nouns to produce compound nouns. Four patterns of heterogeneous compounds are comparable in the Cambodian and Thai languages :

N - V

N - (V + N)

N - Nu

V - N

2. Syntactical Features of the Resultant Forms

The syntactical features of the nominal and verbal constructions in Cambodian and Thai have already been demonstrated in Chapter VI and VIII. The internal syntactical features of compounds can therefore be analysed analogously to those constructions. A compound is called 'Orthodox' if the resultant form functions as expected, i.e. its construction conforms to any normal grammatical pattern. It will be called 'Unorthodox' if the resultant form functions otherwise. Below are the formulae of the orthodox and unorthodox compounds in Cambodian and Thai.

Orthodox

N - N = N

Va - Va = Va

Vo - Vo = Vo

$$N - V = N$$

$$N - (V + N) = N,$$

$$N - Nu = N$$

$$V - N = V$$

Unorthodox

$$N - N = V$$

$$N - V = V$$

$$V - V = N$$

$$V - N = N$$

3. Observable Relationships of the Components

The observable relationship between the components of a compound appears to be either additive or attributive. The components of an additive compound are both fundamental to the whole construction. A change of word-order in many additive compounds would merely upset the conventional apposition; it would not affect the grammatical or lexical features. The borderlines between additive compounds and some elaborations can overlap (cf. Chapters XIII and XIV). An attributive compound comprises a head and an attribute. The former always precedes the latter. The heads often recur in many combinations giving the main range of interest. The attributes make a specific mention of some characteristic, function, qualification, etc., of the head. The additive relationship between components of

a compound is of one type only, i.e. two things, two actions, etc., put together for unitary consideration. The attributive relationships, on the other hand, are of many types and will be summarized below because of their interest, though the divisions are arbitrary, not absolutely clear-cut, and based entirely on lexical considerations :

(i) Descriptive The attribute gives one of the characteristics, or qualifications of the preceding head. Normally, the head signifies a whole of which the attribute is the part.

(ii) Functional The attribute tells what the normal function of the head is, what rôle it performs, or how it behaves.

(iii) Possessive The attribute explains to what the head belongs. Normally, the head signifies a part whereas the attribute signifies a whole.

(iv) Applicational The attribute explains for what the head is used and in what places and on what occasion it is used.

B. GRAMMATICAL PATTERNS OF COMPOUNDS

The three criteria described above, viz. word-classes, syntactical features and relationship of the components, give rise to eight possible patterns of compounding which characterize the Cambodian and Thai compounds. These patterns are given below :

Pattern 1	:	Homogeneous	Orthodox	Additive
Pattern 2	:	Homogeneous	Orthodox	Attributive
Pattern 3	:	Homogeneous	Unorthodox	Additive
Pattern 4	:	Homogeneous	Unorthodox	Attributive
Pattern 5	:	Heterogeneous	Orthodox	Additive
Pattern 6	:	Heterogeneous	Orthodox	Attributive
Pattern 7	:	Heterogeneous	Unorthodox	Additive
Pattern 8	:	Heterogeneous	Unorthodox	Attributive

Not all patterns are found, and the grammatical classes of components of Cambodian and Thai compounds are displayed in accord with the above patterns in all possible combinations in Table XV below, using the following abbreviations :

Hom	for	homogeneous word-classes of components
Het	for	heterogeneous word-classes of components
Ort	for	orthodox features of resultant forms
Uno	for	unorthodox features of resultant forms
Add	for	additive relationship of components
Att	for	attributive relationship of components.

TABLE XV

CAMBODIAN AND THAI COMPOUNDS IN ANALYSED PATTERNS

Pattern	Occurrence in Cambodian	Occurrence in Thai
1 : Hom - Ort - Add	$N - N = N$ $Va - Va = Va$ $Vo - Vo = Vo$	$N - N = N$ $Va - Va = Va$ $Vo - Vo = Vo$
2 : Hom - Ort - Att		
a) Descriptive	$N - N = N$ $Vo - Vo = Vo$ $Vo - Va = Vo$ $Va - Va = Va$	$N - N = N$ $Vo - Vo = Vo$ $Vo - Va = Vo$ $Va - Va = Va$
b) Functional	---	---
c) Possessive	$N - N = N$	$N - N = N$
d) Applicational	$N - N = N$	$N - N = N$
3 : Hom - Uno - Add	---	---
4 : Hom - Uno - Att		
a) Descriptive	$N - N = V$ $V - V = N$	$N - N = V$ $V - V = N$
b) Functional	---	---
c) Possessive	---	---
d) Applicational	---	---
5 : Het - Ort - Add	---	---

TABLE XV [cont.]

CAMBODIAN AND THAI COMPOUNDS IN ANALYSED PATTERNS

Pattern	Occurrence in Cambodian	Occurrence in Thai
6 : Het - Ort - Att		
a) Descriptive	N - V = N	N - V = N
	N - Nu = N	N - Nu = N
	V - N = V	V - N = V
b) Functional	N - V = N	N - V = N
	N - (V + N) = N	N - (V + N) = N
c) Possessive	---	---
d) Applicational	N - V = N	N - V = N
	N - (V + N) = N	N - (V + N) = N
7 : Het - Uno - Add	---	---
8 : Het - Uno - Att		
a) Descriptive	N - V = V	N - V = V
	V - N = N	V - N = N
b) Functional	---	---
c) Possessive	---	---
d) Applicational	---	---

The patterns as tabulated above may be summarized in Table XVI below in order to display clearly their occurrences in the two languages.

TABLE XVI

OCCURRENCES OF CAMBODIAN AND THAI COMPOUNDS IN ANALYSED PATTERNS

Pattern	Occurrence in Cambodian	Occurrence in Thai
1 : Hom - Ort - Add	Yes	Yes
2 : Hom - Ort - Att	Yes	Yes
3 : Hom - Uno - Add	No	No
4 : Hom - Uno - Att	Yes	Yes
5 : Het - Ort - Add	No	No
6 : Het - Ort - Att	Yes	Yes
7 : Het - Uno - Add	No	No
8 : Het - Uno - Att	Yes	Yes

The examples collected from a good number of modern novels are arranged in subsequent sections according to the possible combinations of analysed patterns as tabulated in Table XV above.

1. Pattern 1 : Homogeneous, Orthodox, Additive

Pattern : N - N = N

<u>Cambodian</u>	//kɑ:p - khlo:ŋ// (poem--poem)	'poetry'
	//khao - ?ɑ:v// (trousers--blouse)	'clothing, clothes'
<u>Thai</u>	/kɑ:p - klo:n/ (poem--poem)	'poetry'

<u>Thai</u>	/sə̌ə - phǎ:/	'clothing, clothes'
	(blouse--sarong) cloth)	
<u>Pattern</u> :	Va - Va = Va	
<u>Cambodian</u>	//trɯm - tro:v//	'to be honest'
	(to be equal--to be right)	
	//khlaŋ - mə̌himǎ://	'to be great'
	(to be strong--to be big)	
<u>Thai</u>	/tǔ:n - tēn/	'to be excited; enthusiastic'
	(to be excited--to jump, to be restless)	
	/ʔǝ:n - wǎ:n/	'gentle'
	(to be soft--to be sweet)	
<u>Pattern</u> :	Vo - Vo = Vo	
<u>Cambodian</u>	//dɯk - nə̌m//	'to lead, e.g. a political party'
	(to lead (animal)--to take (person)	
	//crɛəh - sʔǎ:t//	'to be clean and beautiful'
	(to be clean--to be beautiful)	
<u>Thai</u>	/kwǎ:t - lá:ŋ/	'to destroy, to clear away'
	(to sweep--to wash)	
	/thǔ: - thǎy/	'to proceed with difficulties'
	(to rub--to push forward)	

2. Pattern 2 : Homogeneous, Orthodox, Attributive

a) Descriptive

<u>Pattern</u> :	N - N = N	
<u>Cambodian</u>	//krwəŋ - mi:es//	'golden ornaments'
	(set of things--gold)	
	//phtey - tɯk//	'water surface'
	(surface--water)	

<u>Thai</u>	/khrŭəŋ - tho:ŋ/ (set of things--gold)	'golden ornaments'
	/nók krəcǎ:p/ (bird--weaverbird)	'weaverbird'
<u>Pattern</u> :	Vo - Vo = Vo	
<u>Cambodian</u>	//dǎə - le:ŋ// (to walk--to play)	'to walk for pleasure'
<u>Thai</u>	/dɤ:n - lēn/ (to walk--to play)	'to walk for pleasure'
<u>Pattern</u> :	Vo - Va = Vo	
<u>Cambodian</u>	//luək - ri:əy// (to sell--to be a section)	'to sell retail'
	//mɤ:l - ŋi:əy// (to look--to be easy)	'to look down upon'
<u>Thai</u>	/khǎ:y - plī:k/ (to sell--to be part of)	'to sell retail'
	/du: - thǔ:k/ (to look--to be cheap)	'to look down upon'
<u>Pattern</u> :	Va - Va = Va	
<u>Cambodian</u>	//tuən - lmey// (soft--to be beautiful)	'soft and gentle'
	//krəho:m - krəmau// (red--dark of colour)	'deep red'
<u>Thai</u>	/ʔǎ:n - ləmun/ (to be soft--to be soft)	'tenderly soft'
	/khǎŋ - krədǎ:ŋ/ (to be hard--to be coarse)	'to be coarsely hard'

b) Functional

No occurrence

c) PossessivePattern : N - N = N

<u>Cambodian</u>	//chu:ŋ - səmot//	'a bay'
	(bay--sea)	
	//cɿ:ŋ - cæw//	'rowing post (for stern-oar)'
	(leg--oar)	
<u>Thai</u>	/pǝk - sǝe/	'a collar'
	(cover--blouse)	
	/khǎ: - tǝʔ/	'table's leg'
	(leg--table)	

d) ApplicativePattern : N - N = N

<u>Cambodian</u>	//krwɛŋ - səmlɔ: //	'spices and seasoning'
	(set of objects--curry)	
	//krwɛŋ - lkhaon //	'theatrical props'
	(set of objects--play)	
<u>Thai</u>	/khrǝŋ - kɛ:ŋ/	'spices and seasoning'
	(set of objects--curry)	
	/khrǝŋ - lɛkhɔ:n/	'theatrical props'
	(set of objects--a play)	

3. Pattern 4 : Homogeneous, Unorthodox, Attributivea) DescriptivePattern : N - N = V

<u>Cambodian</u>	//cɿt - səpborɔs //	'kind, nice, generous'
	(heart--good man)	

Cambodian //cvt - bon// 'to be charitable'
(heart--merit)

e.g. //ʔo:puk - mɔ̃:y khnom nih cvt-bon nəs//
(parents--I--this--to be charitable--very)
'My parents are very charitable'

Thai /cay - bɔ̃:p/ 'to be sinful'
(heart--sin)

/cay - bun/ 'to be charitable'
(heart--merit)

e.g. /phɔ̃:-mɛ: chɔ̃n cay-bun mɔ̃:k/
(parents--I--to be charitable--very)
'My parents are very charitable.'

Pattern : V - V = N

Cambodian //bən sɔ̃:c// 'rain shield'
(to bar--to throw water)

Thai /kən - chon/ 'bumper'
(to protect--to hit)

/kən - sɔ̃:t/ 'rain shield'
(to prevent--to splash water)

e.g. /kən-chon rót kən ní: mɔ̃y khɔ̃ŋrɛ:ŋ lɔ̃:y/
(bumper--car--Cl.--this--not--strong--FP)
'The bumper of this car is not strong at all.'

b) Functional

No occurrence

c) Possessive

No occurrence

d) Applicational

No occurrence

4. Pattern 6 : Heterogeneous, Orthodox, Attributivea) DescriptivePattern : N - V = N

Cambodian //chv: - ku:s// 'matches'
 (wood--to strike)

//chkæ - bənde:p// 'hunting dog'
 (dog--to chase)

Thai /khon - pŭey/ 'a patient'
 (person--to be sick)

/ná:m - khá:ŋ/ 'dew'
 (water--to remain over)

Pattern : N - Nu = N

Cambodian //tue - ?æk// 'hero or heroine in a play'
 (body--first)

//cv:ŋ - ?æk// 'an expert'
 (feet--first)

Thai /phrǎ? - ?è:k/ 'hero in a play'
 (male actor--first)

/mu: - nŭŋ/ 'an expert'
 (hand--one)

Pattern : V - N = V

Cambodian //si: - chnuəl// 'to take employment'
 (to eat--wages)

//cap - thnæk// 'to mind (object)'
 (to seize--a grade)

Thai /kin - sŭnbɔn/ 'to accept bribery'
 (to eat--bribery)

Thai /thǔ: - phǐw/ 'to practice racial discrimination'
(to hold--skin)

b) Functional

Pattern : N - V = N

Cambodian //tʉk - thlɛk// 'waterfall'
(water--to fall)

//kɔpɔl - hɔh// 'aeroplane'
(ship--to fly)

Thai /nǎ:m - tɔk/ 'waterfall'
(water--to fall)

/rɯɛ - bin/ 'aeroplane'
(ship--to fly)

Pattern : N - (V + N) = N

Cambodian //mɔ:si:n - kɯt = lɛ:k// 'calculating machine'
(machine--to think--figure)

//kuli: - bɔək = lɔ:n// 'chauffeur'
(labourer--to drive--car)

Thai /khrɯɛŋ - khít - lɛ:k/ 'calculating machine'
(machine--to think--figure)

/khon - kháp = rót/ 'chauffeur'
(person--to drive--car)

c) Possessive

No occurrence

d) Applicational

Pattern : N - V = N

Cambodian //mɔ:si:n - de:// 'sewing machine'
(machine--to sew)

<u>Cambodian</u>	//khsæ - krevət// (string--to tie)	'a belt'
<u>Thai</u>	/sûe - nɔ:n/ (dress--to sleep)	'night-dress'
	/má: - nâŋ/ (a bench--to sit)	'bench'
<u>Pattern</u> :	N - (V + N) = N	
<u>Cambodian</u>	//muənti: - luək - ban// (building--to sell--ticket)	'ticket office'
	//ti: - sɔvɣ = kɑ:// (place--to say--to work)	'administrative office'
<u>Thai</u>	/thî: - kèp = khǝ:ŋ/ (place--to keep--things)	'storage place, storehouse'
	/khěm - yép = phǝ:/ (needle--to sew--clothes)	'a needle'

5. Pattern 8 : Heterogeneous, Unorthodox, Attributive

a) Descriptive

<u>Pattern</u> :	N - V = V	
<u>Cambodian</u>	//thlæm - thom// (liver--big)	'to be arrogant'
	//mɔət - cət// (mouth--sour)	'to have a craving for (smoking, betel nut, narcotics, etc.)'
<u>Thai</u>	/hǝ - to:/ (head--big)	'to be broken-hearted'
	/pǝ:t - lɔ:y/ (lung--to float)	'to be timorous, to be frightened'

Pattern : V - N = N

Cambodian //cɔːŋ - dɔy// 'gift, a present'
(to tie--hand)

//kɔndiɛt - kʔɔːm// 'hip'
(to carry on one's hip--basket)

Thai /phɔːt - hŭe/ 'headline news'
(to place upon--head)

b) Functional

No occurrence

c) Possessive

No occurrence

d) Applicational

No occurrence

CHAPTER XII

LEXICAL COMPARISON OF COMPOUNDS

Cambodian and Thai compounds are compared in this chapter in order to show the parallelism in their lexical usage. The comparison will be concentrated on compounds which express the same meaning in both languages so as to provide a common ground upon which an investigation of the choice of components and their effect when used in compound relationships may be carried out. These compounds are presented in three groups according to the lexical meaning of the components as well as of the compounds themselves. The first group comprises those compounds whose heads are found in many combinations together with attributive components, and those whose attributes modify many heads. In other words, in this group of compounds, one component is recurrent. The second group comprises idiomatic compounds, the meaning of which cannot be easily deduced from the meaning of the components. The third group comprises additive compounds and compounds which do not fall exclusively into group one or two, for instance, members of a recurrent series that are highly idiomatic or compounds which are neither recurrent nor idiomatic. Some compounds may, however, enter into more than one group. The sources from which compounds are selected for comparison are a number of modern novels and certain literary works, the titles of which are listed in the bibliography.

The technique of lexical comparison using three parameters, i.e. word-classes, origin of words and lexical meaning, will again be applied to corresponding components in Cambodian and Thai compounds. The compounds themselves, since they have the same or similar meanings, need only be assigned to the same or different word-classes, and thus be regarded as having the same or different grammatical functions respectively.

It is proposed to consider compounds in the Cambodian and Thai languages as being two-component constructions. Those compounds having more than two words as components can be treated by the IC (Immediate Constituent) technique and be considered only on their first ICs.

The comparison of the components of compounds will result in the following instances :

Instance 1	:	SG SO SL
Instance 2	:	SG SO DL
Instance 3	:	SG DO SL
Instance 4	:	SG DO DL
Instance 5	:	DG SO SL
Instance 6	:	DG SO DL
Instance 7	:	DG DO SL
Instance 8	:	DG DO DL

Comparison of the compounds themselves will result in the following instances :

Instance I : SL SG

Instance II : SL DG

The 'origin' parameter (SO, DO) will not be relevant to the compound as an entity in itself. The etymological choices having already been made at the component level, the question becomes not one of origins but of derivation, i.e., by the process of compounding.

The object of the comparison is to assign examples to the combination of instances set up above. The combination patterns, starting from the combination of instances $1 + 1 = I$, $1 + 1 = II$, $1 + 2 = I$, and so forth, would amount to as many as 50 combinations for all possibilities. However, only 14 combinations are found in Compounds that are comparable in Cambodian and Thai, and instances 1 and 3 occur in the combinations more often than other instances. It must be noted here that Cambodian and Thai compounds expressing the same meaning, have been found always to belong to the same word-class, even in the rare cases of $1 + 6$ pattern for components. Comparison of resultant forms under Instance II, therefore, is not possible. The 14 combinations are summarized below.

Pattern of Compounds*Occurrence of Instances
in the Comparison

1	1 + 1, 3 + 3, 4 + 4
2a	1 + 1, 1 + 3, 1 + 4, 1 + 6, 3 + 1, 3 + 3, 3 + 4, 4 + 1, 4 + 3, 4 + 4
2c	1 + 1, 1 + 3, 3 + 3, 3 + 4, 4 + 1, 4 + 3
2d	1 + 1, 3 + 1, 3 + 3, 4 + 3
4a	3 + 1, 3 + 4
6a	1 + 1, 1 + 3, 2 + 1, 2 + 3, 3 + 1, 3 + 3, 3 + 4, 4 + 1, 4 + 3, 4 + 4
6b	1 + 1, 1 + 3, 1 + 4, 1 + 7, 3 + 1, 3 + 3, 3 + 4
6d	1 + 1, 1 + 3, 3 + 1, 3 + 3, 4 + 3
8a	3 + 3, 3 + 4
Cambodian 2a = Thai 6a	3 + 7, 3 + 8
Cambodian 2d = Thai 6d	4 + 5

* See Table XV in Chapter XI for description of compounding patterns.

A. COMPOUNDS WITH CONSTANTLY RECURRING COMPONENTS

The components of some compounds can occur in many combinations with more or less the same function and lexical meaning. In this section, compounds with constantly recurring components in Cambodian and Thai will be compared to show the parallelism in the use of words in compounding. What is interesting is the selective meaning of the resultant combination in each case. However, one cannot expect that the range of occurrences of any particular component will always be exactly the same in the two languages. A number of examples will suffice to confirm overall parallelism in the use of certain items in Cambodian and Thai.

1. Compounds with Constantly Recurring Heads

- 1) //nɛək// = /nák/, /khon/, /phû:/ 'person'
 = /chɔ:w/ 'people, inhabitant of'

The Thai word /nák/ is probably borrowed from Cambodian. The word /khon/ occurs as a free form, but /phû:/, /chɔ:w/ and /nák/ are all bound forms. These heads in both languages, can be modified by nouns, verbs or verb constructs in compound constructions. A considerable number of examples is found in both languages. They are exemplified below.

Pattern 2a : Hom-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1 + 1 = I	//nɛək-kʏɾɿlɑː// (person--sports)	/nák-ki:lɑː/ (person--sports)	a sportsman
1 + 1 = I	//nɛək-toːs// (person--punishment)	/nák-thô:t/ (person--punishment)	a prisoner
1 + 3 = I	//nɛək-phleːŋ// (person--music)	/nák-dontriː/ (person--music)	a musician
1 + 4 = I	//nɛək-kɑːsæet// (person--magazine)	/nák-nǎŋsǔːphim/ (person--newspaper)	a journalist
1 + 4 = I	//nɛək-prəmɔŋ// (person--hunter)	/nák-muːəy/ (person--boxing)	a boxer
4 + 1 = I	//nɛək-kron// (person--city)	/chɑːw-kruŋ/ (inhabitant of--city)	city people
4 + 3 = I	//nɛək-sræe// (person--rice field)	/chɑːw-nɑː/ (people--rice field)	peasant
4 + 3 = I	//nɛək-cəmkaː// (person--garden)	/chɑːw-sǔən/ (people--garden)	a gardener
4 + 4 = I	//nɛək-srok-phuːm// (person--town)	/chɑːw-bǎ:n/ (inhabitant of--village)	a villager
3 + 4 = I	//nɛək-cumŋwː// (person--illness)	/khon-khǎy/ (person--fever)	a patient
3 + 4 = I	//nɛək-kɑːsæet// (person--magazine, newspaper)	/khon-khǎːw/ (person--news)	a reporter

Pattern 6a : Het-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 3 = I	//nsek-kroː// (person--poor)	/khon-con/ (person--poor)	the poor
3 + 3 = I	//nsek-mi:en// (person--to have)	/khon-mi:/ (person--to have)	the rich
	//nsek-mi:en prak// (person--to have-- money)	/khon-mi: ɲʌn/ (person--to have-- money)	the rich
3 + 3 = I	//nsek-ceh// (person--to know)	/phû:-rú:/ (person--to know)	a well-informed person

Pattern 6b : Het-Ort-Att (functional)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1 + 1 = I	//nsek-sv:p// (person--to search for clues)	/nák-sù:p/ (person--to search for clues)	a detective
1 + 1 = I	//nsek-le:ŋ// (person--to play)	/nák-le:ŋ/ (person--to play)	a rogue
1 + 3 = I	//nsek-nipœn// (person--to compose)	/nák-prephan/ (person--to compose)	a novelist
1 + 7 = I	//nsek-combaŋ// (person--the fight)	/nák-róp/ (person--to fight)	a warrior
1 + 7 = I	//nsek-te:səcoː// (person--a tour)	/nák-thátsəna:coːn/ (person--to tour)	a tourist

Pattern 6b : Het-Ort-Att (functional)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 3 = I	//nɛk-cumni:ɛŋ// (person--skillful)	/phû:-chîew=chɑ:n/ (person--skillful)	an expert
3 + 3 = I	//nɛk-pɛrɑ:cey// (person--defeated)	/phû:-phé:/ (person--defeated)	the loser, the defeated
3 + 3 = I	//nɛk-bəok khaɔ=ʔɑ:v// (person--to beat-- clothing)	/khon-sák phâ:/ (person--to wash-- clothing)	laundryman
3 + 1 = I	//nɛk-cat kɑ:// (person--to arrange --work)	/phû:-căt kɑ:n/ (person--to arrange --work)	manager
3 + 4 = I	//nɛk-cih// (person--to ride)	/khon-do:ysɑ:n/ (person--to take passage)	passenger

2) //ci:ɛŋ// = /châ:ŋ/ 'artisan, skilled worker'

These heads occur in two patterns, namely, 2a and 6b.

The attributes which can be either nouns or verbs explain what substance the heads are working in or what work they are doing.

Pattern 2a : Hom-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1 + 3 = I	//ci:ɛŋ-mi:əs// (artisan--gold)	/châ:ŋ-tho:ŋ/ (artisan--gold)	goldsmith
1 + 3 = I	//ci:ɛŋ-chv:// (artisan--wood)	/châ:ŋ-máy/ (artisan--wood)	a carpenter

Pattern 2a : Hom-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1 + 3 = I	//ci:əŋ-dæk// (artisan--iron)	/châ:ŋ-lèk/ (artisan--iron)	blacksmith
1 + 3 = I	//ci:əŋ-khsæ=phlv:ŋ// (artisan--electricity, power line)	/châ:ŋ-fay=fá:/ (artisan--electricity)	electrician

Pattern 6b : Het-Ort-Att (functional)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1 + 3 = I	//ci:əŋ-kat de:// (artisan--to cut --to sew)	/châ:ŋ-tât yép/ (artisan--to cut --to sew)	a tailor
1 + 3 = I	//ci:əŋ-kat sək// (artisan--to cut --hair)	/châ:ŋ-tât phǒm/ (artisan--to cut --hair)	a barber
1 + 4 = I	//ci:əŋ-li:əp phtsəh// (artisan--to paint --house)	/châ:ŋ-tha: sǐ:/ (artisan--to smear --colour)	a painter (workman)
1 + 4 = I	//ci:əŋ-ʔot sək// (artisan--to iron --hair)	/châ:ŋ-dât phǒm/ (artisan--to curl --hair)	a hairdresser
3)	//tʉk// = /nǎ:m/	'water, liquid'	

These heads occur in patterns 2a, 6a and 6b. The lexical meaning as deduced from the compounds widens similarly in both languages from 'water' to 'liquid, essence'.

Pattern 2a : Hom-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 1 = I	//tuk-muən// (water--sacred words)	/ná:m-mon/ (water--sacred words)	holy water
3 + 3 = I	//tuk-də:ŋ// (water--coconut)	/ná:m-məphrá:w/ (water--coconut)	liquid from fresh coconut
3 + 3 = I	//tuk-kro:c// (water--orange)	/ná:m-sôm/ (water--orange)	orange juice
3 + 3 = I	//tuk-trɿy// (water--fish)	/ná:m-plá:/ (water--fish)	fish sauce
3 + 3 = I	//tuk-khmum// (water--bee)	/ná:m-phûŋ/ (water--bee)	honey
3 + 3 = I	//tuk-dəh// (water--breast)	/ná:m-nom/ (water--breast)	milk
3 + 3 = I	//tuk-phnə:k// (water--eye)	/ná:m-tə:/ (water--eye)	tears

Pattern 6a : Het-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 1 = I	//tuk-ʔəp// (water--to scent)	/ná:m-ʔəp/ (water--to scent)	perfume
3 + 3 = I	//tuk-sə:p// (water--tasteless)	/ná:m-cù:t/ (water--tasteless)	fresh water

Pattern 6a : Het-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 3 = I	//tuk-khɛy// (water--raw)	/ná:m-díp/ (water--raw)	unboiled water
3 + 3 = I	//tuk-práy// (water--salty)	/ná:m-khem/ (water--salty)	saline water
3 + 4 = I	//tuk-kə:k// (water--to become thick)	/ná:m-khěŋ/ (water--hard)	ice

Pattern 6b : Het-Ort-Att (functional)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 3 = I	//tuk-thlɛək// (water--to fall)	/ná:m-tòk/ (water--to fall)	a water fall
3 + 3 = I	//tuk-co:// (water--to rise of flood water)	/ná:m-khûn/ (water--to rise)	flood tide
3 + 3 = I	//tuk-ni:əc// (water--to go down)	/ná:m-lon/ (water--to go down)	ebb-tide
3 + 4 = I	//tuk-ləc// (water--to sink)	/ná:m-thûem/ (water--to flood)	flood
3 + 4 = I	//tuk-bap// (water--to shoot out)	/ná:m-phú?/ (water--to shoot out)	fountain

- 4) //krwəŋ// 'a set of objects needed for a specific purpose, equipment, ingredients'
 //mə:si:n// 'machine'
 = /khrwəŋ/ 'a set of objects needed for a specific purpose, equipment, ingredients, machine'

These heads occur in two patterns, 2a and 6b. It is of interest to see that the French loanword //mə:si:n// in Cambodian also corresponds to the Thai /khrwəŋ/; such compounds in Cambodian are comparatively new.

Pattern 2a : Hom-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1 + 1 = I	//krwəŋ-ʔopekɔː// (equipment-- equipment)	/khrwəŋ-ʔùppekɔːn/ (equipment-- equipment)	equipment
1 + 1 = I	//krwəŋ-cək// (set of*...-- engine)	/khrwəŋ-cək/ (set of...-- engine)	engine
1 + 1 = I	//krwəŋ-ʔə:vut// (set of...--weapon)	/khrwəŋ-ʔə:wút/ (set of...--weapon)	ammunition
1 + 1 = I	//krwəŋ-səmʔə:ŋ// (set of...-- cosmetics)	/khrwəŋ-səmʔə:ŋ/ (set of...--beauty, cosmetics)	cosmetics
1 + 1 = I	//krwəŋ-lkhaon// (set of...--a play)	/khrwəŋ-ləkhoːn/ (set of...--a play)	theatrical props

* Owing to space limitation, the word 'set of...' is used in the examples given here in place of 'a set of objects needed for a specific purpose'.

pattern 2a : Hom-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1 + 3 = I	//krwəŋ-səmləː// (ingredients-- curry)	/khrŋəŋ-kəːŋ/ (ingredients-- curry)	spices and seasoning used in making curry
1 + 3 = I	//krwəŋ-miːəs// (set of...gold)	/khrŋəŋ-thəːŋ/ (set of...--gold)	golden ornaments
1 + 3 = I	//krwəŋ-prək// (set of...--silver)	/khrŋəŋ-ŋvŋ/ (set of...--silver)	silver ornaments, silver utensils
3 + 1 = I	//mɑːsiːn-ruətyuən// (machine--car)	/khrŋəŋ-rətyon/ (machine--car)	car engine
1 + 4 = I	//krwəŋ-prədap// (set of...-- utensils)	/khrŋəŋ-mwː/ (set of...--hand)	tools

Pattern 6b : Het-Ort-Att (functional)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1 + 3 = I	//krwəŋ-bəh=pum// (machine--to print)	/khrŋəŋ-phim/ (machine--to print)	printing machine
3 + 1 = I	//mɑːsiːn-kwət ləːk// (machine-- to calculate-- figure)	/khrŋəŋ-khít ləːk/ (machine-- to calculate-- figure)	calculating machine
3 + 3 = I	//mɑːsiːn-bəok khəo= ʔɑːv// (machine--to wash clothing)	/khrŋəŋ-sək phāː/ (machine--to wash clothing)	washing machine

5) //bontup// = /hôn/ 'room'

Pattern 2a : Hom-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 3 = I	//bontup-tuk// (room--water)	/hôn-nă:m/ (room--water)	water closet
3 + 1 = I	//bontup-?a:ha:// (room--food)	/hôn-?a:hă:n/ (room--food)	dining-room

Pattern 6d : Het-Ort-Att (application)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 3 = I	//bontup-phtəel khlu:en// (room--personal)	/hôn-sùen tuə/ (room--personal)	private room
3 + 3 = I	//bontup-de:k// (room--to sleep)	/hôn-nə:n/ (room--to sleep)	bedroom
3 + 3 = I	//bontup-tətu:əl phniev// (room--to receive --guest)	/hôn-ráp khè:k/ (room--to receive --guest)	living room
3 + 3 = I	//bontup-?əŋkuy le:ŋ// (room--to sit-- to play)	/hôn-nāŋ lēn/ (room--to sit-- to play)	living room

By close analogy, the following 'room-like' words may also be listed as examples here :

Pattern 2a : Hom-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1 + 3 = I	//ro:ŋ-kon// (hall--cinema)	/ro:ŋ-nǎŋ/ (hall--cinema)	cinema hall
1 + 1 = I	//ro:ŋ-lkhaon// (hall--a play)	/ro:ŋ-ləkhə:n/ (hall--a play)	theatre

Pattern 2d : Hom-Ort-Att (application)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1 + 1 = I	//ro:ŋ-ruet// (hall--car)	/ro:ŋ-rót/ (hall--car)	garage
1 + 1 = I	//ro:ŋ-ti:en// (hall--donation)	/ro:ŋ-thə:n/ (hall--donation)	alms-house

Pattern 6d : Het-Ort-Att (application)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1 + 3 = I	//ro:ŋ-pum// (hall--to print)	/ro:ŋ-phim/ (hall--to print)	printing press, publication house
3 + 1 = I	//sə:lə:-riən// (hall--to learn)	/ro:ŋ-riən/ (hall--to learn)	school
3 + 1 = I	//mənti:-luək ban// (house--to sell-- ticket)	/hŋ-khǎ:y tŋə/ (room--to sell-- ticket)	ticket office

6) //cvt// = /cay/ 'heart'

These heads produce a group of heterogeneous verb compounds which are unorthodox. The attributes which modify these heads can be either verbs or nouns, thus, two patterns can be illustrated here.

Pattern 4a : Hom-Uno-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 1 = I	//cvt-bon// (heart--merit)	/cay-bun/ (heart--merit)	to be charitable
3 + 4 = I	//cvt-sapboros// (heart--good person)	/cay-phră?/ (heart--monk)	to be extremely kind

Pattern 8a : Het-Uno-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 3 = I	//cvt-sra:l// (heart--to be light)	/cay-baw/ (heart--to be light)	to be gullible, easily swayed
3 + 3 = I	//cvt-numj=thwŋ// (heart--stable)	/cay-mân=khonj/ (heart--stable)	to be stable
3 + 3 = I	//cvt-tuən// (heart--soft)	/cay-?ô:n/ (heart--soft)	to be soft-hearted, easily touched
3 + 4 = I	//cvt-numj// (heart--firm)	/cay-dêt/ (heart--resolute)	to be resolute, determined
3 + 4 = I	//cvt-thŋuən// (heart--heavy)	/cay-năk=nên/ (heart--firm)	to be firm, cool, patient

- 7) //dæm// = /tôn/ 'origin, beginning, trunk of a tree'

These words appear to have many meanings in both languages. The grammatical function of these words is also manifold. These functions and the meanings are parallel in both languages.

Pattern 2a : Hom-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 1 = I	//dæm-kɔː// (beginning--neck)	/tôn-khɔː/ (beginning--neck)	nape
3 + 1 = I	//dæm-tun// (origin--capital sum)	/tôn-thun/ (origin--capital sum)	capital sum
3 + 3 = i	//dæm-phloːv// (beginning--way)	/tôn-thɑːŋ/ (beginning--way)	way, top of the way
3 + 3 = I	//dæm-chɜː// (trunk--wood)	/tôn-máɣ/ (trunk--wood)	tree

- 8) //khsæe// = /sǎːy/ 'line'

The meaning in both languages widens from the concrete (line, string) to the more general idea of linearity.

Pattern 2ā : Hom-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 1 = I	//khsæe-ʔɑːkɑːs// (line--air)	/sǎːy-ʔɑːkɑːt/ (line--air)	antenna, aerial
3 + 1 = I	//khsæe-tuːrəsəp// (line--telephone)	/sǎːy-thoːrəsəp/ (line--telephone)	telephone line
3 + 3 = I	//khsæe-phnɛːk// (line--eye)	/sǎːy-tɑː/ (line--eye)	sight

9) //kba:l// = /hŭə/ 'head'

In compounds, these heads express the expanded lexical meanings of 'the top part, the forward part, the round object, etc.'

Pattern 2a : Hom-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 3 = I	//kba:l-dəme:k// (head--bed)	/hŭə-tiəŋ/ (head--bed)	bed-head
3 + 3 = I	//kba:l-cuəŋkuəŋ// (head--knee)	/hŭə-khəw/ (head--knee)	knee
3 + 3 = I	//kba:l-tu:k// (head--boat, ship)	/hŭə-rwə/ (head--boat, ship)	prow
3 + 4 = I	//kba:l-rəteh=phlɿ:ŋ// (head--train)	/hŭə-rót=cə̀k/ (head--locomotive)	locomotive
3 + 4 = I	//kba:l-lŋi:əc// (head--evening)	/hŭə-khām/ (head--night)	early evening

10) //kəmlaŋ// = /kəmlaŋ/ 'power, strength'

Pattern 2a : Hom-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1 + 1 = I	//kəmlaŋ-kə:y// (strength--body)	/kəmlaŋ-kə:y/ (strength--body)	physical strength
1 + 3 = I	//kəmlaŋ-cv̄t// (power--heart)	/kəmlaŋ-cay/ (power--heart)	will power
1 + 3 = I	//kəmlaŋ-seh// (power--horse)	/kəmlaŋ-má:/ (power--horse)	horse-power

11) //ko:n// = /lû:k/ 'child, offspring, round object, small object'

Pattern 2a : Hom-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 1 = I	//ko:n-sv̄s// (child--disciple)	/lû:k-sît/ (child--disciple)	disciple, student, follower
3 + 1 = I	//ko:n-sə:// (small thing--arrow)	/lû:k-sǎ:n/ (small thing--arrow)	arrow
3 + 3 = I	//ko:n-bəmnol// (child--debt)	/lû:k-nî:/ (child--debt)	debtor
3 + 3 = I	//ko:n-səu// (small object--locker)	/lû:k-kuncə:/ (small object--locker)	key

12) //mcas// = /câw/ 'lord, owner'

Pattern 2a : Hom-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 3 = I	//mcas-srok// (lord--town)	/câw-muəŋ/ (lord--town)	Lord Mayer, governor of a town
3 + 3 = I	//mcas-tuk// (owner--water)	/câw-nǎ:m/ (owner--water)	water vendor
3 + 3 = I	//mcas-bəmnol// (owner--debt)	/câw-nî:/ (owner--debt)	creditor
3 + 3 = I	//mcas-phtsəh// (owner--house)	/câw-bâ:n/ (owner--house)	landlord

13) //məet// = /pǎ:k/ 'mouth'

In both languages, these words can signify 'opening, entrance' and occur with such meanings in many compounds.

Pattern 2a : Hom-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 1 = I	//məet-crɔ:k// (mouth--lane)	/pǎ:k-trɔ:k/ (mouth--lane)	entrance of a lane
3 + 3 = I	//məet-chnaŋ// (mouth--pot)	/pǎ:k-mǎ:/ (mouth--pot)	rim of a pot
3 + 3 = I	//məet-tuənle:// (mouth--river)	/pǎ:k-mê:ná:m/ (mouth--river)	edge of river, estuary
3 + 3 = I	//məet-tvi:ə// (mouth--door)	/pǎ:k-prətu:/ (mouth--door)	door

14) //phtey// = /thǎ:ŋ/ 'abdomen, stomach'

These words can express the idea of encompassing volume or of some vast area. There are not many compounds in the comparison but, in each language, there are quite a number of compounds with these heads.

Pattern 2a : Hom-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 3 = I	//phtey-twɨk// (stomach--water)	/thǎ:ŋ-ná:m/ (stomach--water)	an area of water
3 + 3 = I	//phtey-me:k// (stomach--sky)	/thǎ:ŋ-fá:/ (stomach--sky)	sky

15) //prak// = /ɲʋn/ 'money'

Pattern 2a : Hom-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 3 = I	//prak-khæ// (money--month)	/ɲʋn-dwən/ (money--month)	monthly salary
3 + 3 = I	//prak-dæm// (money--origin)	/ɲʋn-tôn/ (money--origin)	capital sum

16) //sraom// = /sɔ:ɲ/ 'case'

= /thŭɲ/ 'bag'

= /plô:k/ 'case'

Pattern 2d : Hom-Ort-Att (applicational)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 1 = I	//sraom-vɛ:ntɑ:// (case--spectacles)	/sɔ:ɲ-wên-tɑ:/ (case--spectacles)	spectacles case
3 + 3 = I	//sraom-səmbot// (case--letter)	/sɔ:ɲ-còtmǎ:y/ (case--letter)	an envelope
4 + 3 = I	//sraom-dɔy// (case--hand)	/thŭɲ-mu:/ (bag--hand)	gloves
4 + 3 = I	//sraom-cɣ:ɲ// (case--foot)	/thŭɲ-thá:w/ (bag --foot)	socks, stockings
3 + 3 = I	//sraom-dɑ:v// (case--sword)	/plô:k-dǎ:p/ (case--sword)	sword-sheath
3 + 3 = I	//sraom-kambɔt// (case--knife)	/plô:k-mî:t/ (case--knife)	knife-sheath

17) //ti:// = /thî:/ 'place, location, the one which'

Pattern 6d : Het-Ort-Att (application)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1 + 1 = I	//ti:-prvksa:// (the one which-- to consult)	/thî:-prvksă:/ (the one which-- to consult)	advisor
1 + 1 = I	//ti:-prēcum cuen// (place--to gather-- people)	/thî:-prēcum chon/ (place--to gather-- people)	populous area
1 + 1 = I	//ti:-pvŋ// (the one which-- to depend on)	/thî:-phŋ/ (the one which-- to depend on)	refuge
1 + 1 = I	//ti:-bo:ci:ə// (place--to worship)	/thî:-bu:chă:/ (place--to worship)	altar
1 + 1 = I	//ti:-cə:t// (place--to park)	/thî:-cə:t/ (place--to park)	parking place
1 + 3 = I	//ti:-srələp// (the one which-- to love)	/thî:-răk/ (the one which-- to love)	the beloved one
1 + 3 = I	//ti:-dau// (the one which-- to aim)	/thî:-wăŋ/ (the one which-- to aim)	the goal, the hope
1 + 3 = I	//ti:-rap=?ɑ:n// (the one which-- to respect)	/thî:-năp=thŋ:/ (the one which-- to respect)	the respected one
1 + 3 = I	//ti:-cro:k kaon// (place--to take refuge)	/thî:-lòp.phay/ (place--to take refuge)	refuge, shelter

- 18) //kɑː// = /kɑːn/ 'action'
 //seckdɿy// = /khwɑːm/ 'matter, status'

These heads are found to combine with most verbs in the two languages to produce abstract nouns from the verbs. The first pair, //kɑː// and /kɑːn/, most often occurs with operative verbs; the second pair //seckdɿy// and /khwɑːm/ most often occurs with attributive verbs. However, some verbs can be combined with both forms, the result of which will be two types of abstract noun. The first combination has lexical reference to activity whereas the second combination refers to a state or quality.

Pattern 6a : Het-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1 + 1 = I	//kɑː-bəreɣɑːy// (action--to lecture)	/kɑːn-banyaːy/ (action--to lecture)	lecture
1 + 1 = I	//kɑː-ruk-riːən// (action--aggressive)	/kɑːn-rúkkrɑːn/ (action--aggressive)	aggression
1 + 1 = I	//kɑː-dæ khbuːən// (action--to march-- in procession)	/kɑːn-dɿːn khəbuen/ (action--to march-- in procession)	demonstration
1 + 1 = I	//kɑː-kæ=khay// (action--to correct)	/kɑːn-kêː=khǎy/ (action--to correct)	correction
1 + 1 = I	//kɑː-cat=kɑː// (action--to manage)	/kɑːn-căt=kɑːn/ (action--to manage)	management

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1 + 3 = I	//kɑ:-phyi:əbɑ:l// (action--to protect)	/kɑ:n-pŋkan/ (action--to protect)	protection
1 + 3 = I	//kɑ:-bat ru:p// (action--to disappear)	/kɑ:n-hǎ:y tuə/ (action--to disappear)	disappearance
1 + 3 = I	//kɑ:-tsək=tɔ:ŋ// (action--to contact)	/kɑ:n-tīt=tɔ:/ (action--to contact)	contact, relationship
1 + 3 = I	//kɑ:-bɔh pum// (action--to print)	/kɑ:n-phim/ (action--to print)	printing
3 + 1 = I	//seckdɤy-səmrəc// (state--successful)	/khwa:m-sǎmrèt/ (state--successful)	success
3 + 1 = I	//seckdɤy-səŋsəy// (state--doubtful)	/khwa:m-sǒŋsǎy/ (state--doubtful)	suspect, doubt
3 + 1 = I	//seckdɤy-prɑ:tħnɑ:// (state--to desire)	/khwa:m-prǎ:tħnǎ:/ (state--to desire)	desire
3 + 3 = I	//seckdɤy-səŋkhum// (state--to hope)	/khwa:m-wǎŋ/ (state--to hope)	hope
3 + 3 = I	//seckdɤy-lʔɔ:// (state--good)	/khwa:m-di:// (state--good)	virtue, goodness
3 + 3 = I	//seckdɤy-pru:əy// (state--to be worried)	/khwa:m-kəŋwon/ (state--to be worried)	worry

In Cambodian, there are two other words which perform the same function as the two heads mentioned above. They are //phi:əp// 'state' and //ʔəmpɤ:// 'matter, deed'. The word //phi:əp// is comparatively new and can be used in place of //seckdɤy// in

most compounds, e.g.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//phi:əp-lʔɔ://,	//seckdɔy-lʔɔ://	'goodness'
	//phi:əp-smoh=trəŋ//,	//seckdɔy-smoh=trəŋ//	'frankness'
	//phi:əp-trɯm=tro:v//,	//seckdɔy-trɯm=tro:v//	'justice'
	//ʔəmpɯ:-kɑ:c//,	//seckdɔy-kɑ:c//	'evil'
	//ʔəmpɯ:-lʔɔ://,	//seckdɔy-lʔɔ://	'goodness'

The uses of //kɑ://, /kɑ:n/, //seckdɔy// and /khwɑ:m/ in the following examples are not parallel.

Pattern 6a : Het-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
4 + 3 = I	//seckdɔy-phdo:=phdac// (state--to exchange)	/kɑ:n-lɛ:k=pliɛn/ (action--to exchange)	exchange
4 + 3 = I	//kɑ:-cam=bac// (action--necessary)	/khwɑ:m-campen/ (state--necessary)	necessity
4 + 3 = I	//kɑ:-ceh=dɯŋ// (action--to know)	/khwɑ:m-rú:/ (state--to know)	knowledge

19) //kɑ:// = /kɑ:n/ 'affair, work'

These heads occur in compounds of pattern 1 as exemplified below :

Pattern 1 : Hom-Ort-Add

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1 + 1 = I	//kɑ:-tu:t// (affair--ambassador)	/kɑ:n-thû:t/ (affair--ambassador)	diplomacy

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1 + 1 = I	//kɑ:-ŋi:ə// (work--work)	/kɑ:n-ŋɑ:n/ (work--work)	work, duty
1 + 1 = I	//kɑ:-srok tes// (affair--country)	/kɑ:n-muən/ (affair--country)	politics
20)	//dom// = /kʰ:n/		'lump'

These nouns often occur as classifiers and have been so classified. The following compounds are examples of their occurrence as heads of compounds.

Pattern 2a : Hom-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 3 = I	//dom-thmɑ: // (lump--stone)	/kʰ:n-hĩn/ (lump--stone)	rock, stone
3 + 1 = I	//dom-kru:əs// (lump--gravel)	/kʰ:n-krùet/ (lump--gravel)	gravel
21)	//tuən// = /ʔɔ:n/		'soft'

These are examples of verb heads that are parallel in the two languages.

Pattern 2a : Hom-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 3 = I	//tuən-phʔɑem// (soft--sweet)	/ʔɔ:n-wǎ:n/ (soft--sweet)	sweet (of words, looks, etc.)
3 + 4 = I	//tuən-lmey// (soft--beautiful)	/ʔɔ:n-ləmun/ (soft--tender)	nice, gentle (of manner)

2. Compounds with Constantly Recurring Attributes

1) //cvt// = /cay/ 'heart'

These nouns occur as attributes to other verbs in many compounds, giving general reference to 'feeling'.

Pattern 6a : Het-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1,+ 3 = I	//kraen-cvt// (to fear--heart)	/kre:ŋ-cay/ (to fear--heart)	to have consideration for
1 + 3 = I	//ko:-cvt// (to stir--heart)	/kuən-cay/ (to stir--heart)	to annoy, disturb
2 + 3 = I	//smak-cvt// (willing--heart)	/səmāk-cay/ (volunteer--heart)	to be voluntary, to be willing
3 + 3 = I	//tuk-cvt// (to keep--heart)	/wáy-cay/ (to keep--heart)	to trust
4 + 3 = I	//pe:p-cvt// (full--heart)	/pho:-cay/ (fulfil--heart)	to be pleased with, to like
4 + 3 = I	//təes-cvt// (to disagree--heart)	/khăt-cay/ (to cross--heart)	to annoy, to get in a way
4 + 3 = I	//ʔəs-cvt// (be at the end-- heart)	/ʔə:n-cay/ (soft--heart)	to feel weary of, to be fed up

2) //day// = /mu:/ 'hand'

These nouns are found to combine with verbs as well as nouns to form compounds. With verbs, the compounds are of pattern 6a, with nouns the compounds are of pattern 2a.

Pattern 2e : Hom-Ort-Att (possessive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 3 = I	//mri:əm-dəy// (finger--hand)	/nīw-mu:/ (finger--hand)	finger
3 + 3 = I	//kə:-dəy// (joint--hand)	/khô:-mu:/ (joint--hand)	wrist

Pattern 6a : Het-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
4 + 3 = I	//co:l-dəy// (to enter--hand)	/rŭəm-mu:/ (to join--hand)	to join, to take part
4 + 3 = I	//lɿ:k-dəy// (to lift up--hand)	/rɑ:-mu:/ (to abate--hand)	to stop (doing)
4 + 3 = I	//ruet-dəy// (to run--hand)	/khŭn-mu:/ (to rise--hand)	to accomplish, to get used to

B. IDIOMATIC COMPOUNDS

A number of idiomatic compounds in Cambodian and Thai will be compared in this section. The interesting point lies in the parallelism in the compounding of components which closely correspond to one another grammatically, derivationally as well as lexically. The degree of idiomaticity may vary from the easily guessable to the absolutely puzzling. However, the compounds compared here produce either the same or else an extremely similar

meaning. The idiomatic compounds will be divided into two groups; namely, compounds that are exactly parallel in the two languages, and compounds which express very similar meanings.

1. Parallel Idiomatic Compounds

Pattern 1 : Hom-Ort-Add

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 3 = I	//dɔːy-cɿ:ŋ// (hand--foot)	/mɯ:-ti:n/ (hand--foot)	supporter (esp. for gangsters)
3 + 3 = I	//mɾɔ:y-mu:ey// (one hundred--one)	/rɔːy-ʔèt/ (a hundred--one)	numerous, all

Pattern 2a : Hom-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 3 = I	//tɯk-cɿt// (water--heart)	/ná:m-cɔːy/ (water--heart)	mood, spirit, good will
3 + 3 = I	//tɯk-prak// (water--money)	/ná:m-ŋɿn/ (water--money)	value of money
3 + 3 = I	//ʔac:-mɔən// (excrement--cock)	/khí:-kɔːy/ (excrement--cock)	to be of poor quality

Pattern 6a : Het-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 1 = I	//bɔ:v-kɔ:ŋ// (to beat--gong)	/ti:-khɔːŋ/ (to beat--gong)	to make public announcement

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1 + 3 = I	//lœn-mœet// (to sound--mouth)	/lân-pâ:k/ (to sound--mouth)	to declare, to speak out
3 + 1 = I	//tœl-crœ:k// (to be at end--lane)	/con-trœ:k/ (to be at end--lane)	to be at an impasse
3 + 3 = I	//bœntœ:-kœntuy// (to join--tail)	/tœ:-hă:ŋ/ (to join--tail)	to follow closely in line
3 + 3 = I=	//dœy-?œek// (hand--one)	/mœ:-nœŋ/ (hand--one)	an expert

Pattern 8a : Het-Uno-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 3 = I	//khno:ŋ-vœ:ŋ// (back--long)	/lăŋ-ya:w/ (back--long)	to be lazy
3 + 3 = I	//kba:l-rwŋ// (head--hard)	/hŭœ-khăŋ/ (head--hard)	to be stubborn
3 + 3 = I	//trœciœk-srœ:l// (ear--to be light)	/hŭ:-bœw/ (ear--to be light)	to be credulous

2. Similar Idiomatic Compounds

Some idiomatic compounds in the two languages are built up of words expressing a very similar idea; some are also parallel as regards the lexical meaning of their components but the word order is different. These two types of compounds are called 'Similar idiomatic compounds' and are exemplified below :

Pattern 1 : Hom-Ort-Add

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
4 + 4 = I	//cu:-cət// (sour--bitter)	/khǒm-khǔ:n/ (bitter--astringent)	to be resentful, to feel bitter

Pattern 2a : Hom-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 4 = I	//mɿ:l-ŋi:əy// (to look--easy)	/du:-thù:k/ (to look--cheap)	to insult, to look down upon

Pattern 2c : Hom-Ort-Att (possessive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 4 = I	//ko:n-cə:p// (child--bird)	/lû:k-chǎ:ŋ/ (child--elephant)	witch's followers, spirit worshippers

Pattern 6a : Het-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 4 = I	//kən-cv:ŋ// (to hold--foot)	/thǔ:-hǎ:ŋ/ (to hold--tail)	to support, to take part
4 + 3 = I	//lǎŋ-sac// (to rise--flesh)	/mi:-nǔə/ (to have--flesh)	to be fat and healthy
4 + 3 = I	//chw:-chʔvŋ=khno:ŋ// (to feel pain-- backbone)	/sǐəv-sǎn=lǎŋ/ (to feel a thrill of fear--backbone)	to be frightened
4 + 4 = I	//khlaŋ-day// (strong--hand)	/nǎk-khô:/ (heavy--joint)	to be severe, violent

Pattern 8a : Het-Uno-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 4 = I	//muk-krəs// (face--thick)	/nâ:-dâ:n/ (face--coarse)	to be shameless

C. OTHER COMPOUNDS

There are numerous compounds in the two languages which show parallelism in their combination of components. Those in which one component is recurrent have already been compared in Section A. In this section the compounds which have not been listed in Section A or B will be presented.

Pattern 2a : Hom-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 3 = I	//krœp-phliəŋ// (seed--rain)	/mēt-fŏn/ (seed--rain)	rain-drops
4 + 3 = I	//tuk-muk// (water--face)	/sī:-nâ:/ (colour--face)	expression on the face
4 + 3 = I	//kəmtēc-phlɿ:ŋ// (bits--fire)	/lû:k-fay/ (ball--fire)	sparks
4 + 3 = I	//krœp-kəmphlɿ:ŋ// (seed--gun)	/lû:k-pw:n/ (ball--gun)	bullet

Pattern 2c : Hom-Ort-Att (possessive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1 + 3 = I	//cɿ:ŋ-cuəndæə// (foot--stairs)	/cɿ:ŋ-banday/ (foot--stairs)	foot of a staircase

Pattern 2c : Hom-Ort-Att (possessive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 3 = I	//kontuy-phnɛ:k// (tail--eyes)	/hǎ:ŋ-ta:/ (tail--eyes)	corner of one's eyes
4 + 1 = I	//kba:l-tu:rəsəp// (head--telephone)	/hǔ:-tho:rəsəp/ (ear--telephone)	telephone receiver
4 + 3 = I	//cɔŋkeh-kəpəl// (waist--ship)	/thɔ́:ŋ-rwə/ (stomach--ship)	the bottom of a ship
4 + 3 = I	//cɿ:ŋ-me:k// (foot--sky)	/khɔ̌:p-tɔ́:/ (edge--sky)	horizon
4 + 3 = I	//dæm-tru:ŋ// (trunk--chest)	/hǔə-ʔòk/ (head--chest)	heart
3 + 3 = I	//thnəŋ-dəy// (joint--hand)	/khô:-mu:/ (joint--hand)	wrist
3 + 3 = I	//thnəŋ-rwssɿy// (joint--bamboo)	/khô:-phây/ (joint--bamboo)	node of bamboo
1 + 1 = I	//prə:ŋ-prəsə:t// (tower--palace)	/prə:ŋ-prə:sə:t/ (tower--palace)	tower of a palace or temple
1 + 1 = I	//phæn-ti:// (chart--place)	/phě:n-thî:/ (chart, plan--place)	map

Pattern 6a : Het-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1 + 3 = I	//ku:-snaeha:// (pair--to love)	/khû:-rák/ (pair--to love)	sweetheart,

Pattern 6a : Het-Ort-Att (descriptive)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
4 + 1 = I	//cəp-to:s// (to catch--punish- ment)	/səy-thə:t/ (to put on-- punishment)	to put the blame on, to find fault with
3 + 3 = I	//dəŋ-khlueŋ// (to know--body, self)	/rú:-tue/ (to know--body, self)	to be aware of
3 + 3 = I	//təp-təŋ-khlu:ən// (to dress up-- body, self)	/təŋ-tue/ (to dress up-- body, self)	to dress oneself

Pattern 6b : Het-Ort-Att (functional)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 3 = I	//yueŋ-həh// (machine--to fly)	/khrəŋ-bin/ (machine--to fly)	aeroplane
3 + 3 = I	//kəpəl-həh// (ship--to fly)	/rue-bin/ (ship--to fly)	aeroplane

Pattern 6d : Het-Ort-Att (applicational)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 3 = I	//chnəŋ-cəmhoy// (pot--to steam)	/mə:-nəŋ/ (pot--to steam)	steaming pot
3 + 3 = I	//chr:-crət// (wood--to support by means of an arm or with a stick)	/məy-thə:w/ (wood--to support by means of an arm or with a stick)	walking stick

Pattern 6d : Het-Ort-Att (applicational)

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 3 = I	//tʉk-crəluək// (water--to dip)	/nǎ:m-cĕm/ (water--to dip)	sauce
4 + 3 = I	//crə:k-co:l// (lane--to enter)	/thǎ:ŋ-khǎw/ (way--to enter)	entrance
4 + 3 = I	//phtsəh-kət sək// (house--to cut-- hair)	/rǎ:n-tǎt phǎm/ (shop--to cut-- hair)	barber's shop

Compounds exemplified below are those whose grammatical functions and lexical meanings of the resultant forms are parallel, but the patterns for the combination of their components do not correspond in the two languages.

Cambodian pattern 2a = Thai pattern 6a

<u>Instance of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 7 = I	//thlǎy-chnu:əl// (value--hiring)	/khǎ:-cǎ:ŋ/ (value--to hire)	wages
3 + 8 = I	//tʉk-khmeh// (water--vinegar)	/nǎ:m-sŏm/ (water--sour)	vinegar
3 + 8 = I	//tʉk-kro:c// (water--orange)	/nǎ:m-wǎ:n/ (water--sweet)	soft-drink
1 + 7 = I	//nǣk-cəmbǎŋ// (person--the fight)	/nǎk-rǓp/ (person--to fight)	warrior
1 + 7 = I	//nǣk-te:səco:// (person--a tour)	/nǎk-thǎtsəna:co:n/ (person--to tour)	toutist

Cambodian pattern 2d = Thai pattern 6d

<u>Instance of</u> <u>Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
4 + 5 = I	//srok-kəmnəət// (district--birth)	/bâ:n-kỳ:t/ (house--to be born)	birth place, home-town

CHAPTER XIII

THE ANALYSIS OF ELABORATIONS

It is a very common practice in the Cambodian and Thai languages to use a succession of words of the same or similar meaning so that they support each other's meaning. The effect is usually either to give emphasis or to embellish, or to convey a certain subtlety to the meaning, depending upon the particular requirements. Though many words are used to express one line of thought, such language does not sound superfluous or redundant to native speakers. On the contrary, the proper combination of words of the same or similar meaning adds liveliness as well as impact to the sense required. The following examples, taken from Cambodian and Thai novels and articles, are cited as specimens of how the languages may undergo this kind of elaboration.

Examples in Cambodian

//ʔɑ:-sok slo:t ci:ə kəmpri:ə ʔɤt mi:əda: bedɑ://

(Sok--nice--be--orphan--bereaved of--mother--father)

'The nice Sok is an orphan.'

(Prachum roeung preng I, p.105)²⁸

//vi:ə thvɤ: ʔɑoy khmæ yɤ:ŋ phey khla:c təkslot//

(They--to do--so as to--Khmer--we--to fear--to fear
to be shocked)

'They frightened Cambodians.'

(Neak cheat niyum, p.18)⁴⁴

//runruwəŋ thləy-thlə: səmbə: səpba:y//
 (prosperous--glorious--prosperous--happy)
 'happy and glorious'

(Kolap Bailin, p.143)⁴⁵

Examples in Thai

/phrəʔ-səŋm̌ kamnan nān kʰ mi: ɲa:m thāŋ rŭ:p rŭ:ŋ
 cərit̚ kiriya: wa:ca: kʰ ʔʰ:n wǎ:n mi: sət̚iʔ panya:
 wǎ:tsənǎ: banda:sǎk sŏm dūey chǎ:t trəku:n/
 (Royal concubines--court ladies--that--P--have--
 beauty--both--figure--form--manner--manner--
 words--P--soft--sweet--have--presence of mind--
 intelligence--fortune--honour--appropriate--with--
 birth--family)

'There are court ladies whose figure and whose
 mannerisms in movements and words are both soft and
 sweet and who possess intelligence, fortune and
 honour that befit their lineal descent.'

(Rak nai rachasamnak, p.35)⁴⁶

This style of lengthening speech by adding more words of similar or related meanings is here referred to as 'elaboration'. In the Cambodian and Thai languages, many sequences of words formed by this process of elaboration are used so frequently in such a combination that they form part of a speaker's inventory of expressions. They become fixed constructed items of widespread importance, and occupy a place as stylistic features in the languages. Elaborations in Cambodian and Thai are, then, connected with style, and they are certainly an essential part of literary

embellishment. They are, however, by no means exclusive to literature or self-conscious stylishness. In fact, they are also part of everyday speech and their use as such is enjoyed by the majority of speakers and writers of the Cambodian and Thai languages. Even in the commonest style of speech one can find elaborations here and there without much difficulty. In fact, ordinary everyday discourse without elaborations might sound harsh, abrupt or somehow strange to native speakers, even though it is perfectly correct and clear. In some cases elaborations add an intensifying impact in the sense that they draw more attention from the hearer or reader than the non-elaborated form does. In others they may offer nothing but prolongation just for stylistic preference. In the examples below, for instance, elaborations can be replaced by non-elaborated forms with only the slightest effect on the meaning or impact.

Examples in Cambodian

//ʔəmnvɿh tɔː tɿu soːm nɛk tɛəŋ ʔəs pinuət piniscay
ʔəoy puət prɑːkət//

' From now on will you please examine it clearly.'

(Paks champa khmav, p.190)⁴⁷

The non-elaborated version is :

//ʔəmnvɿh tɔː tɿu soːm nɛk tɛəŋ ʔəs pinuət ʔəoy prɑːkət//

//nih ci:ə msəthyo:bə:y dæɫ ʔanupɑ:t ʔəoy ni:ən
ciəs kec ru:əc ʔəm̩pi: səphi:əp ʔəp ʔu:ə crəbo:k
crəbəl ney ti: kroŋ//

'This was a means which gave her the chance to escape
 from the confusion of the city.'

(Chivit et ney, p.14)⁴⁸

The non-elaborated version is :

//nih ci:ə msəthyo:bə:y dæɫ ʔanupɑ:t ʔəoy ni:ən
 ciəs ru:əc ʔəm̩pi: səphi:əp ʔəp-ʔu:ə ney ti: kroŋ//

Examples in Thai

/lôn kliət nǎk kliət nǎ: cǎw klîn ní:/

'She detested this smell terribly.'

(Chan rak ru'du rŋn, p.73)⁴⁹

The alternative non-elaborated form is :

/lôn kliət nǎk cǎw klîn ní:/

/khâ:phēcǎw tǎŋ-cay phû:t lēn tē: sūm sǐəŋ fǎŋ du:

man chǎ:ŋ tem pay dūey khwǎ:m sǐədom sǐədǎ:y/

'I intended to be joking but my voice seemed to
 show my feeling of regret.'

(ibid., p.45)⁴⁹

The non-elaborated form is :

/khâ:phēcǎw tǎŋ-cay phû:t lēn tē: sǐəŋ fǎŋ du:

man chǎ:ŋ tem pay dūey khwǎ:m sǐədǎ:y/

TYPES OF ELABORATIONS

It is on the basis of a word-expanding process that elaborations are formed. This expansion or prolongation of words does not really change the basic meaning of the base-words but can, as already mentioned above, cause the meaning to be slightly shifted or give a more figurative sense to the base forms.

Principally, an elaboration consists of a base-word together with an elaborator which may precede or follow its base-word. However, in both languages, there are cases where it is not possible to identify which word of the combination is a base-word and which is an elaborator.. In such cases, both words can be regarded as collateral elaborators in the combination.

An elaborator may possess a variety of meanings in relation to its base-word, ranging from the same, similar, and related meaning to non-related and even opposite meanings. The elaborator that possesses the same or similar meaning as that of its base-word is referred to as an 'iterative elaborator' and the combination so formed is called an 'iterative'. The elaborator that has its meaning related to that of its base-word is referred to as a 'polymerous elaborator' and the combination is called a 'polymer'.*

* The word 'polymer' is borrowed from Yuen Ren Chao's 'A Grammar of Spoken Chinese'⁵⁰; but the definition is slightly different, as presented in Section B. of this chapter.

The third type of elaboration, which is here named 'reduplication' is the combination in which the reduplicative elaborator is a 'nonsense' word; the combination is termed a 'reduplicative'. The fourth type of elaboration, to be referred to as 'antonymy', is a combination in which the elaborator has a meaning opposite to that of its base-word; the elaborator is said to be 'antonymous'. Lastly, come elaborations of a type which will be referred to as 'expanded forms'. These are all four-syllable combinations; some of them embrace the features of one or another of the foregoing types of elaboration, while others are simply expanded from a single item. These five types of elaboration are found to be parallel in both the Cambodian and Thai languages.

A. ITERATIVES

An iterative is a combination of two words of the same or similar meaning. It is basically this relation of their meanings that brings them together into the combination. However, the degrees of similarity vary in such a manner that they may be described as belonging to a continuum. The two components of an iterative, i.e. the base word and its iterative elaborator, confirm or emphasize each other's meaning. Though normally no extra lexical meaning is gained by this practice of iteration, the speaker has the satisfaction of having embellished his speech. When the base-word has more than one meaning, the process of iteration helps to clarify, intensify and/or specify the selected meaning.

These groups of iteratives are set up on the basis of the degree of closeness in meaning which the two components express towards each other :-

- (i) Synonymous iteratives
- (ii) Associated iteratives
- (iii) Intensifying iteratives

1. Synonymous Iteratives

The components of a synonymous iterative express more or less the same lexical meaning as each other. The synonymous iteratives often involve what is referred to as a 'learned form', i.e. a loan-word from Pali or Sanskrit. The components of synonymous iteratives are juxtaposed to endorse each other's meaning. In the following examples, learned forms are underlined.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//cɔmnɤy ʔɑ:hɑ://	'food'
	(food--food)	
	//piphup lo:k//	'world, earth'
	(world--world)	
	//cauva:y ni:əy//	'master'
	(master--master)	
	//ʔobət kæt//	'to happen'
	(to happen--to happen)	
	//ʔathibɑ:y puənyuən//	'to explain'
	(to explain--to explain)	
	//thi:əni:ə ʔahʔɑ:ŋ//	'to guarantee'
	(to guarantee--to garantée)	

	//niyi:əy sdry// (to say--to say)	'to say'
	//li:ət trəðɑ:ŋ// (to open--to open)	'to open'
	//kohək <u>musɑ:</u> // (to tell a lie--to tell a lie)	'to tell a lie'
	//chap rəhəs// (quick--quick)	'quick'
	//pwt mə:n// (true--true)	'true'
	//cas <u>cəəri:ə</u> // (old--old)	'old'
	//chəot lŋuəŋ// (stupid--stupid, ignorant)	'stupid'
	//səp krup// (all--all)	'all'
	//bəep ya:ŋ// (type, sort--type, sort)	'type, sort'
<u>Thai</u>	/phīw <u>phan</u> / (skin--skin)	'skin, complexion'
	/rū:p sɔŋ/ (shape, figure--shape, figure)	'shape, figure'
	/fǎ: phənǎŋ/ (wall--wall)	'wall'
	/khǎ: <u>thǎ:t</u> / (slave--slave)	'slave, servant'

/khî:kîət khî:khrǎ:n/ (lazy--lazy)	'lazy'
/khîən ti:/ (to beat--to beat)	'to beat, to punish by beating'
/nîəw rǎŋ/ (to pull--to pull)	'to pull'
/hô:m lǎ:m/ (to surround--to surround)	'to surround'
/kheyǎp kheyûən/ (to shift--to shift)	'to shift slightly'
/bèŋ yê:k/ (to divide--to divide)	'to divide, to part'
/chiəp lǎ:m/ (witty--witty)	'witty'
/khǎŋ krèŋ/ (hard--hard)	'hard'

2. Associated Iteratives

The components of an associated iterative do not express the same lexical meaning, but do fall within a common scope of associated meanings. They may be of the same or different grammatical natures in comparison with their counterparts.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//tumniəm tǎəmlǎep// (tradition--custom)	'tradition'
	//tuk pru:əy// (suffering--worrying)	'trouble, worrying'

- //træy trɑ:n// 'refuge, a saviour'
(bank of a river--refuge)
- //thlok kəmphlæŋ// 'clown'
(clown--funny)
- //pən prəmə:n// 'to estimate'
(to work out--to guess)
- //khlaŋ khla:ŋ// 'strong'
(strong--brave)
- //rəli:əy rəluət// 'to vanish'
(to melt--to be extinguished)
- //kho:c khɑ:t// 'to suffer a loss, to be damaged'
(to lose--to suffer a loss)
- //chlueh prəkæek// 'to quarrel'
(to quarrel--to argue)
- //ʔət trœm// 'to tolerate, to endure'
(to be deprived of--to endure)
- //bəŋʔəŋ bəŋʔən// 'to delay'
(to delay--diminished)
- //sræk ho:// 'to cry out'
(to cry out--to call out)
- //yɯ:n yu:// 'long (in time)'
(to be late--long)
- //slo:t trəŋ// 'honest, nice'
(nice--straight, honest)
- //cəp srac// 'to be finished'
(to come to the end--finished off)

<u>Thai</u>	/khâ: fan/ (to kill--to chop)	'to kill'
	/khî:t khîen/ (to draw--to write)	'to write'
	/sân sǎ:n/ (to order--to teach)	'to instruct, to teach'
	/fǎ:ŋ rǎ:ŋ/ (to accuse--to cry out)	'to bring charges against'
	/phǎ:y phrê:/ (to open--to spread)	'to spread out, to popularize'
	/cêp pùet/ (to be hurt--to ache)	'to be hurt, to be painful'
	/rî:p rǎ:n/ (to hurry--to be hot)	'to hurry'
	/hǎw krêhǎ:y/ (to be hungry--to be thirsty)	'to be hungry'
	/nùey nǎ:y/ (to be tired--to be bored)	'to be bored'
	/ʔǎ:n phliə/ (to be soft--to be weak)	'to be weak'
	/ʔòt yǎ:k/ (to be starved--to want)	'to be starved, famished'
	/bǎ:n rwen/ (house--home, house)	'house'
	/ʔǎ:ŋ ʔǎ:ŋ/ (jar--large bowl)	'jar'
	/rwə phə:/ (boat--raft)	'boat'

Associated iteratives are often used to express a figurative meaning. Thus certain iterative elaborations of this type have turned into compounds.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//dɤk-nɔəm// (to take--to lead)	'to be leading (an idea, a political party, etc)'
	//cih-cɔən// (to ride on--to press)	'to oppress, to tyrannize'
	//phsom-phkum// (to arrange--to assemble)	'to arrange a marriage'
	//sdɤy-dɔndɤŋ// (to say--to inform)	'to ask for a girl's hand in marriage'
	//bæk-bək// (to break into pieces-- to break into two pieces)	'to separate'
	//doh-srɑ:y// (to release--to untie)	'to find excuse for oneself'
	//trɤm-tro:v// (equal--right)	'honest'
	//thu:-srɑ:l// (relaxed--light)	'to feel released'
	//sɤp-sɤt// (quiet--quiet)	'to cease (war)'
	//chɤp-chɤuy// (scented--good smell of food)	'to be scented, famous'

<u>Thai</u>	/d̥m̥et-r̥ɔːn/ (boiled--hot)	'to be in trouble'
	/n̥iəw-n̥ɛn/ (sticky--firm)	'to be stingy'
	/c̥ɛm-s̥ǎy/ (clear--transparent)	'to be cheerful'
	/kh̥ǒm-kh̥m̥ːn/ (bitter--astringent)	'to be resentful, to feel bitter'
	/kh̥ǽŋ-k̥rəd̥âːŋ/ (hard--harsh)	'harsh (esp. in manner)'
	/h̥iəw-k̥rəh̥ǎːy/ (hungry--thirsty)	'to be greedy'
	/ch̥iəp-l̥ɛːm/ (sharp--pointed)	'to be witty, intelligent'
	/k̥ôt-kh̥iː/ (to press--to ride on)	'to oppress'

3. Intensifying Iteratives

a) Specific Intensifying Iteratives

In both languages, there are words which occurs as modifiers exclusively or almost exclusively with one or two particular words. These modifiers give an intensifying impact that is specifically appropriate to the context of situation. Some modifiers may convey referential meanings too; others may have only an onomatopoeic effect in addition to their function as intensifiers. The words susceptible to this type of elaboration are mostly

attributive or operative verbs. Their elaborators are phonaesthetic words, as defined in Section C.1.b of Chapter II. In the examples below, '*E' signifies the intensifying iterative elaborator; it generally carries its specific meaning that is applicable to a certain few base-words.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//sɔː skuh-skiːɐy// (white--*E)	'bright white'
	//khmau puːp// (black--*E)	'deep black'
	//sɲuːət hæŋ// (dry--very dry)	'to feel sad, dry in feeling'
	//kɔau ʔun// (hot---*E)	'warm'
	//ruət khmaŋ// (to run--*E)	'to run fast'
	//thlɛək khpɛək-khpɛək// (to fall--*E)	'to fall down and splash up)
	//cuːɐy chɯː-chʔɑːl// (to help--*E)	'to help'
	//prəpɔp mniː-mniːɐ// (to hurry--*E)	'to hurry'
	//tumpiːɐ lumʔɛt// (to chew--*E)	'to chew'
	//yiːəŋ yiːəs// (to walk--*E)	'to walk'

<u>Thai</u>	/rɔːn cǐː/ (hot--*E)	'very hot'
	/dam-pǎː/ (black--*E)	'deep black'
	/khǎːw cúək/ (white--*E)	'brightly white)
	/dɛːŋ cǎː/ (red--*E)	'bright red'
	/tron nəw/ (straight--*E)	'extremely straight'
	/tron phǎn/ (straight--*E)	'exactly on target'
	/ʔim nǎm/ (to be full in eating--*E)	'to be full (in eating)'
	/chǎy sǎːy/ (to use--*E)	'to use'
	/kɛː ŋəm/ (old--very old)	'very old in age'
	/yɑːw fúəy/ (long--*E)	'very long'

b) Completive Intensifying Iteratives

An intensifying iterative may be composed of a word elaborated by the addition of a grammatical construct (linker + completive verb). The base-word in such a case is an operative verb with transitive meaning and the construct expresses the result

of the action of the verb. Such information is superfluous, however; the words are required only for their elaborative effect.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//bəmpru:əp ʔəoy khlv̄y// (to shorten--in order to--short)	'to shorten'
	//bənti:əp ʔəoy ti:əp// (to lower--in order to--low)	'to lower'
	//puənri:k ʔəoy thom// (to enlarge--in order to--big, large)	'to enlarge'
	//prəp ʔəoy cri:əp// (to tell--in order to--to know)	'to tell'
<u>Thai</u>	/tət hây khà:t/ (to cut--in order to--to be cut)	'to cut'
	/nə:n hây ləp/ (to lie down--in order to--to sleep)	'to sleep'
	/kin hây ʔîm/ (to eat--in order to--to be full up)	'to have a full meal'
	/kheyǎ:y hây yǎy/ (to enlarge--in order to--large)	'to enlarge'
	/bô:k hây sâ:p/ (to tell--in order to--to know)	'to tell'

c) Expression-form Intensifying Iteratives

Another process by which an intensifying iterative is formed is by adding a cliché, set phrase or quotation which seems to add a detail to illustrate the meaning of the base-word but which in fact merely conveys an elaboration impact; its overt referential meaning is disregarded.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//kme:ŋ bau day// (child--to suck--hand)	'infant, baby'
	//borəs tru:ŋ prəm hat// (man--chest--five--cubit)	'man (i.e. one with manly qualities)'
	//kwt knoŋ cvt// (to think--in--heart)	'to think'
	//kəmbəŋ bʋt muk// (to be hidden--to close--face)	'hidden, secret'
	//pru:ey-cvt kriəm thləəm prəmət// (to be worried--dry--liver--spleen)	'to be worried'
	//kə:-cu:ey khni:ə tɿu vip tɿu mɔ:k// (help--together--to go--back--to go --to come)	'to help one another'
	//coŋ kraoy bəŋʔəs// (end--after--finished)	'at the end, finally'
<u>Thai</u>	/dèk ʔom mu:/ (child--to keep, in the mouth--hand)	'infant, baby'
	/chə:y ʔòk sǎ:m sò:k/ (man--chest--three--cubit)	'man (i.e. one with manly qualities)'

<u>Thai</u>	/nūk náy cáy/ (to think--in--heart)	'to think'
	/khî:-kîet sǎn-lǎŋ yǎ:w/ (lazy--backbone--long)	'lazy'
	/khî:-kîet tuə pen khǒn/ (lazy--body--to be--hairy)	'very lazy'
	/cǝnhǒŋ phǝ:ŋ khǒn/ (haughty--to bristle--hair)	'haughty'
	/tham-ŋǎ:n tuə pen kliəw/ (to work--body--to be-- in a coil-like form)	'to work hard'
	/phǝ:ŋ hǔ: chî:/ (expensive--ear--sizzling)	'expensive'

B. POLYMERS*

A polymer is a combination of words having meanings that are related to one another. These words are put together because they appear to be related in the speakers' mind. One of the words makes him think of the other, and all of them generally imply the same overall meaning as that of the combination. A polymer reflects the wandering mind of a speaker who tries to search into his lexicon and bring out words that strike his mind as being

* The usage of this word is inspired by the work of Yuen Ren Chao who, applying the word to Chinese, observed that 'a list of co-ordinate morphemes one or more of which are bound roots is often mentioned without pause and functions as a collective noun.'

(Yuen Ren Chao 1968, p.378)⁵⁰.

connected in their meanings. The structure of a polymer may coincide with that of an additive compound. The decision as to where to put a dividing line between polymers and additive compounds may be resolved as follows : if the lexical meaning of one of the components is almost ignored, then the combination is a polymer and hence an elaboration. Otherwise it may be regarded as an additive compound.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//cɿt thlæm//	'heart'
	(heart--liver)	
	//mœt kɔː//	'to argue'
	(to speak--neck)	
	//muk mœt//	'face'
	(face--mouth)	
	//præk miːəs//	'money'
	(money--gold)	
	//srɿy piː//	'woman'
	(woman--female)	
	//ʔòssɑː phyiːəyiːəm//	'to be conscientious'
	(industrious--persevere)	
	//phlec trəciək//	'to forget'
	(to forget--ear)	
<u>Thai</u>	/cay khɔː/	'heart (feeling)'
	(heart--neck)	
	/ʔòk cay/	'heart (physical)'
	(chest--heart)	

<u>Thai</u>	/pǎ:k khɔ:/	'mouth'
	(mouth--neck)	
	/bâ:n chôn/	'house'
	(house--hole)	
	/fay fw:n/	'fire, light'
	(fire--firewood)	
	/ná:m thâ:/	'water'
	(water--watersite)	
	/khâ:w plâ:/	'rice, food'
	(rice--fish)	
	/lâp nɔ:n/	'to sleep'
	(to sleep--to lie down)	

There are also certain idiomatic expressions in the two languages which can be classified as polymers. The components of these expressions are combined on the merit of their similar or related lexical meanings. They may signify things of the same kind, things that normally appear together, things that are very much alike, or things that imply the same overall meaning of the whole combination. The arrangement of words is usually fixed in a certain order either because such things occur in that sequence or because a certain euphonic effect is achieved by adhering to that order. Rhyming, chiming and alliteration play a great part in this arrangement as well as the selection of the components. The meaning of a polymer of this type could be straightforward, that is it could mean all that its components suggest; but it is

more common that the speakers want only one or two words to be meaningful and put in the other words for the effect of elaboration. These polymers are mostly composed of four syllables or four words. Either form must be read with four rhythmical beats. The counting of syllables for the beats in these polymers may not always agree with the phonological characteristics relevant to syllabicity in the two languages under discussion. The open syllables with short vowels,* for example, may be too weak to be counted in certain polymers but may receive heavy stress and so be counted in others. Certain syllables anteposed to strong stressed syllables**, on the other hand, may not be counted as syllables.

Examples of weak stressed syllables which are counted,

Cambodian //sophi:əp ri:əp sɑ:// 'to be polite'

Thai /kheyǎn mǎn phien/ 'to be industrious'

Examples of uncounted syllables,

Cambodian //ko:n cau phau sɔnda:n// 'family, lineage'

Thai /pê:ŋ khēmīn dīnsǔ:phɔ:ŋ/ 'powder for face and skin'

* See also Henderson's extended syllable with short vowel, (Henderson 1952)⁵¹.

** Cambodian restricted syllable especially, (Jacob 1968, p.14, 24)¹³.

Examples of polymers in the two languages :

<u>Cambodian</u>	//ti:ən thu:p phɲi: phkɑ:// (candle--joss stick--design-- flower)	'the three offerings to Buddha : candle, joss stick, flowers'
	//mi:əs prak thuən-thi:ən// (gold--silver--treasure)	'wealth'
	//pu:c puəŋ sɑndɑ:n// (seed--family--family)	'family, ancestral lineage'
	//sræ cɑmkɑ: chbɑ: dɑmnɑm// (rice field--garden--flower garden--plantation)	'land for plantation'
	//chmuəp cuəp luək do:// (trader--to trade--to sell-- to change)	'to do business'
	//yup thɲɑy lɲi:əc prɯk// (night--day--evening--morning)	'all day'
	//kɑət cɑs chw: slɑp// (to be born--old--to be ill-- to die)	'human fate'
	//dɯk nɑəm pɑəm yu:ə// (to lead--to take--to carry in the mouth--to carry)	'to lead and help'
	//dɑs tɯən sɔvɯ prɛdɑu// (to rouse--to rouse--to say-- to teach)	'to instruct'
	//siəp-priəp ?ɑn tho:y// (to become cheapened-- diminished--to retreat)	'to become cheapened, diminished'
	//dɑh srɑ:y kɑe-khɑy// (to release--to untie--to solve a problem)	'to excuse oneself'

<u>Cambodian</u>	//chə:p cheh ro:l ri:el// (to burn--to burn--to burn-- to ravish)	'to be angry, to be burnt by anger'
	//sə:hə:v yuəŋ khno:ŋ// (vulgar--uncivilized--uncivilized people)	'barbarous people'
	//səmrum trɤm tro:v// (proper--equal--right)	'to be polite'
	//pɤn prəsəp vi:əŋ vey// (good at doing things--good at doing things--quick--clever)	'to be good and clever'
<u>Thai</u>	/dɔ:k-máɣ thû:p thiən/ (flower--joss stick--candle)	'the three offerings to Buddha : flowers, joss stick, candle'
	/wɔŋsǎ: khənə: ɣ̌:t/ (family--group--relatives)	'relatives'
	/rûək sŭən rây nɑ:/ (orchard--garden--vegetable garden --rice field)	'cultivated land'
	/hŭey nɔ:ŋ khlo:ŋ bɔŋ/ (brook--swamp--canal--large swamp)	'waters'
	/thŭey thɔ: ʔo: chə:m/ (bowl--big jar with lid-- bowl shaped vessel--plate)	'crockery'
	/rmə phɛ: nɑ:wɑ:/ (boat--raft--ship)	'boats'
	/râ:tchewát chàt thon/ (decorative fence--tiered umbrella--flag)	'decorations in a -procession'

<u>Thai</u>	/nũə tây ?ô:k tøk/ (north--south--east--west)	'all directions'
	/chă:w sǎ:y bà:y yen/ (morning--late morning-- afternoon--evening)	'all the time'
	/chă:ŋ má: wuə khwə:y/ (elephant--horse--ox-- water buffalo)	'domesticated quadrupeds'
	/mũ: hêt pêt kǎy/* (pork--mushroom--duck--chicken)	'foodstuff'
	/kǎ:t kē: cêp tǎ:y/ (to be born--old--to be ill-- to die)	'human fate'
	/dī:t sĩ: ti: pǎw/ (to pluck--to rub--to beat-- to blow)	'to play music'
	/ti: ran fan thə:ŋ/ (to beat--to poke--to chop-- to pierce)	'to fight, fighting'
	/kô:t fát rát cù:p/ (to embrace--to hug-- to hold tight--to kiss)	'to show passionate love'
	/yép pǎk thàk ró:y/ (to sew--to embroider--to knit, plait, crochet--to thread)	'needlework'

* It can be seen that the word /hêt/ 'mushroom' in this example is inserted for the euphonic effect, i.e., to fill in the foursome and also to help rhyming with the following word.

<u>Thai</u>	/bùək lóp khu:n hǎ:n/ (to add--to subtract--to multiply --to divide)	'arithmetic'
	/din ná:m lom fáy/ (earth--water--wind--fire)	'the four traditional elements'
	/thənǒn hǒn thǎ:ŋ/ (road--way--way)	'roads'

C. REDUPLICATIVES

Reduplication is the simplest type of elaboration which functions not only in stylistic usage but also in certain grammatical frameworks (Nacaskul 1962⁸, Jacob 1968¹³, Huffman 1967²⁵). Reduplicated forms are formally divided into two types, namely, those resulting from repetitive and those resulting from partial reduplication. The repetitive type appears to perform such grammatical functions as pluralization and generalization. It is thus not counted as an elaboration. Partial reduplication, on the other hand, exerts an effect of elaboration, providing stylistic features of expression but without affecting the grammar. The elaborators in these partial reduplicatives are regarded as 'nonsense' words* since they normally convey no lexical meaning in their own right (except for those incidental elaborators to be discussed in Section C.4 below). One notable rôle of a

* See Section C.1.c. for definition of ' nonsense' words.

reduplicative elaborator is to help filling in a needed syllable or to help rhyming according to a scheme of versification in poetry. Reduplicative elaborators normally express a certain phonological relationship with their base-words. This relationship appears to consist of three categories : alliteration, rhyming and chiming. A fourth category, however, arises when any one of the above three types has the additional characteristic that its form coincides with that of a referential word.

1. Alliterative Reduplicatives

The 'nonsense' word reduplicative elaborators that produce alliteration normally have the same initial consonants as their base monosyllabic words. If the base-words are dissyllables, the first syllables are always repeated, the difference of the base-words and their elaborators lies only in the vowels and final consonants of the second syllables.

In the following examples, and other examples given in this chapter, the absence of meaning in the 'nonsense' word is represented by the symbol ' *O '.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//khsɤp khsiev// (to whisper--*O)	'to whisper'
	//mɛnuh mɛni:ɛ// (human-being--*O)	'human-being'
	//kɔmpri: kɔmpri:ɛ// (*O--orphan)	'an orphan'

<u>Cambodian</u>	//lumbvɿn lumbɑ:k// (*O--to suffer)	'to suffer; to be in trouble'
	//prɔ:m priɛŋ// (to agree--*O)	'to agree'
	//chʔæt chʔɔn// (to be full up--*O)	'to be full up (in eating)'
	//thɿuən thɿɔ:/// (heavy--*O)	'to be heavy, strong'
	//snɿt snɑ:l// (closely related--*O)	'to be closely related'
	//sɑ: sɔ:ŋ// (*O--to return)	'to answer (in action)'
	//phte: phtuk// (*O--to load)	'to load'
	//tu:lom tu:li:ɛy// (*O--wide)	'wide'
	//ʔɑ:lɔh ʔɑ:lɔy// (*O--to yearn)	'to yearn, to long for'
<u>Thai</u>	/mənɯt mənɑ:/ (human-being--*O)	'human-being'
	/thənət thənɯ:/ (dexterous--*O)	'dexterous'
	/rǔ: rǎ:/ (luxurious--*O)	'luxurious'
	/krɛcɿ:t krɛcɿ:ŋ/ (*O--dispersed)	'dispersed'

<u>Thai</u>	/wŏŋ wǎy/ (*O--swift)	'swift'
	/hŭəŋ hě:n/ (to keep for oneself--*O)	'to keep for oneself'
	/nê:t nŭəy/ (*O--tired)	'tired'
	/yʔ: yîŋ/ (*O--proud)	'proud, arrogant'
	/ŋoŋ ŋuəy/ (puzzled--*O)	'puzzled'
	/nʔʔ nǎʔ/ (sticky--*O)	'sticky'

2. Rhyming Reduplicatives

The 'nonsense' words which form this type of reduplicative elaboration can have the same vowels or the same vowels with final consonants as those of the base-words.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//crɔ:k lɔ:k// (lane--*O)	'alleys'
	//pɔ̃y sɔ̃y// (husband--*O)	'husband'
	//mɛ:n tɛ:n// (truly--*O)	'truly, really'
	//slo:t bo:t// (nice--*O)	'nice, gentle'
	//tuən phluən// (soft--*O)	'supple, graceful'

<u>Cambodian</u>	//sru:əl phluən// (comfortable--*O)	'comfortable, well'
<u>Thai</u>	/tho:ŋ yǎ:ŋ/ (gold--*O)	'gold'
	/khǎ:n mɛ:n/ (arm--*O)	'arms'
	/chǎy mɿ:y/ (indifferent--*O)	'to be indifferent'
	/ʔəən thǎən/ (fat--*O)	'fat'
	/ŋǎp chǎp/ (quiet--*O)	'quiet'
	/lɿʔ thɿʔ/ (messy--*O)	'dirty, messy'

3. Chiming Reduplicatives

The 'nonsense' words which form this type of reduplicative elaboration have the same initial and final consonants as those of the base-words.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//kme:ŋ kmɑ:ŋ// (children--*O)	'children'
	//chʔvŋ chʔæŋ// (bone--*O)	'bone'
	//krəʔo:p krəʔæp// (scented--*O)	'scented'
	//tec tu:əc// (little--*O)	'a little'

<u>Thai</u>	/d̄m̄:m d̄m̄/	'to absorb, to have a deep feeling'
	(to drink--*O)	
	/krəsɪp krəs̄:p/	'to whisper'
	(to whisper--*O)	
	/khǔk khǎk/	'to be in high spirit, to be lively'
	(to be in high spirit--*O)	
	/yûp yâp/	'numerous'
	(numerous--*O)	
	/cò:ŋ cê:ŋ/	'clear, openly, exposed'
	(*O--open, clear)	
	/pùək pîək/	'limp, weak'
	(*O--limp)	
	/krəd̄uk krəd̄ik/	'to wiggle'
	(*O--to wiggle)	

Characteristic of the Thai language only is one type of chiming reduplicative which is highly productive; this is the chiming of the base-word with an elaborator having a constant vowel. The constant vowel may be either /ɾ/, /ɾ:/, /ɛ/ or /ɛ:/. The first pair /ɾ/ and /ɾ:/ can chime with any vowel except with themselves, in which case the second pair come into operation. This elaboration by recourse to constant vowels is characteristic of the informal style of speech.

<u>Thai</u>	<u>Word</u>	<u>Reduplicated Form</u>	<u>English</u>
	/kin/	/kin kɿn/	to eat

<u>Thai</u>	<u>Word</u>	<u>Reduplicated Form</u>	<u>English</u>
	/lên/	/lên lɛ̃n/	to play
	/bùə/	/bùə bɤ̃:/	to be bored'
	/khâ:w/	/khâ:w khɤ̃:w/	rice
	/tôʔ/	/tôʔ tɤ̃ʔ/	table
	/sîp/	/sîp sɤ̃p/	ten
	/krəpǎw/	/krəpǎw krəpɤ̃w/	purse
	/phâ:-hôm/	/phâ:-hôm phâ:-hɤ̃m/	blanket
	/yɤ̃ʔ/	/yɤ̃ʔ yɤ̃ʔ/	plentiful
	/dɤ̃:n/	/dɤ̃:n dɤ̃:n/	to walk'

4. Incidental Reduplicatives

A reduplicative is generally considered in this work as a construction made up of a base-word and its reduplicative elaborator which is a euphonic product of the base-word and conveys no lexical meaning. However, some base-words undergo the reduplication process and produce, as elaborators, words which seem to be not 'nonsense' words but terms which, according to the evidence of a lexicon, have meanings of their own. These meanings appear to be quite distinct and often remote from the meanings of the base-words. Applying the criterion for elaboration, however, it becomes clear that individual and particular meanings for this type of elaborator are completely suppressed. Phonologically they may be identified with words in the lexicon; semantically,

however, they may not be identified with such words, since whatever meaning they have in the elaboration is derived from the meaning of the base-words and embodied in the elaboration as a whole. The most probable explanation is that : the speaker, being appreciative of reduplicative effect, accidentally produces a form which coincides phonologically with an item already in the lexicon in its own right. As his mind is concentrating on the reduplicative pattern, he tends to ignore the lexical characteristics that the form possesses. This type of reduplicative elaborator may be referred to as an 'incidental elaborator'. In the examples listed below the base-words are underlined.

<u>Cambodian</u>	// <u>kbu:ən</u> kbwəŋ// (<u>textbook</u> --tile)	'textbook, reference'
	//kiən <u>kəh</u> // (bay-- <u>island</u>)	'island'
	// <u>chŋəl</u> chŋɑ:y// (<u>to be suspicious</u> -- far)	'to be suspicious'
	//cumnwə <u>cumni:ən</u> // (belief-- <u>an expert</u>)	'to be an expert'
	//lec <u>lw:</u> // (to leap out-- <u>to hear</u>)	'to hear'
	// <u>pi:ruəh</u> pi:sɑ:// (<u>pleasing to the ear</u> -- delicious)	'pleasing to the ear'

<u>Thai</u>	/mɯː mǎy/ (hand--wood)	'hand'
	/setiː? setaŋ/ (consciousness--money, coin)	'consciousness, sense'
	/lǎw loːm/ (pen, enclosure-- to cajole, to console)	'to cajole, to console, to make love'
	/nêː nɔːn/ (certain--to sleep)	'certain'
	/pêːt pûen/ (eight--stained)	'stained, to stain'
	/phàt phien/ (to postpone--discrepant)	'to postpone'
	/súk son/ (to stuff into-- naughty)	'to be naughty'
	/dùk dūːn/ (late at night--abundant)	'late at night'
	/mít chít/ (completely hidden-- close to, near)	'completely hidden'
	/tòk tèn/ (to fall--to decorate)	'to decorate, to dress up'

D. ANTONYMIES

In the Cambodian and Thai languages, words of opposite meanings can be put together to form compounds. The meaning of these compounds normally makes a generalization about common ground or all-inclusive scope based upon the meanings of the two components. This type of compound is included in this chapter, instead of under the chapter on compounds, because the relationship between the lexical meaning of the two components is more distinctive than their grammatical relation. This relationship falls into line with the relationship between the two components of other types of elaboration, which ranges from the same, similar or related meaning to the non-related meaning and the opposite meaning. Therefore, these antonymous compounds are included in this chapter as one type of elaboration to be referred to as 'antonymies'.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//cwt-chnɔ:y// (near--far)	'all everywhere'
	//ti:ɛp khpuəs// (low--high)	'all, high and low'
	//khos tro:v// (wrong--right)	'whether right or wrong'
	//to:c thom// (small--big)	'all sizes'
	//cu: ph?æm// (sour--sweet)	'sweet and sour'

<u>Thai</u>	/nɔ̌:y yǎy/ (small--big)	'all, large and small'
	/chûə di:/ (bad--good)	'whether good or bad'
	/nǎə tǎy/ (north--south)	'all directions, north and south'
	/phît chô:p/ (wrong--right)	'whether right or wrong'
	/hǎə hǎ:ŋ/ (head--tail)	'all through, head and tail'

Antonymies in the two languages involve also a sequence of the positive and negative forms of verbs. These are sometimes given a stronger impression of unity when nominalized as compounds with //kɑ://, /kɑ:n/ 'action'; or //seckdɔy//, /khwɑ:m/ 'matter, status' (see also Section A.1.18 in Chapter XII).

<u>Cambodian</u>	//seckdɔy ku:ə pum ku:ə// (matter--suitable--not-- suitable)	'whether suitable or unsuitable'
	//kɑ: pe:p-cɔt mun pe:p-cɔt// (action--please--not--please)	'please or displease'
	//kɑ: sok-cɔt mun sok-cɔt// (action--agree--not--agree)	'agreement or disagreement'
<u>Thai</u>	/khwɑ:m khuən mǎy khuən/ (matter--suitable--not-- unsuitable)	'whether suitable or unsuitable'
	/di: mǎy di:/ (good--not--good)	'may, it could happen'

E. EXPANDED FORMS

There are two favourite patterns of elaboration in the Cambodian and Thai languages : the quadruplet, i.e., composed of four syllables; and the foursome, i.e., composed of four words. The classification made in this investigation is based on the syllable and word count as well as on the lexical meanings of the components. Thus, two words with similar lexical meanings of one type or another produce iteratives (Section A.), two words or more which possess related meanings yield polymers (Section B.), words combined with 'nonsense' words give reduplicatives (Section C.), and, words of opposite meanings produce antonymies (Section D.). Many of these elaborations have four syllables, and polymers may be composed of four words. This section presents other types of quadruplets and foursomes which will be called 'expanded forms' because they are, through the process of elaboration, the expansion of certain smaller items that may be one of the four principal classes previously described.

The items which can be expanded into quadruplets or foursomes in the Cambodian and Thai languages are compounds, elaborations and also grammatical constructs of certain patterns. The aim of the expansion is to elaborate, or, if the base-forms are already elaborated, to elaborate further. The expansions

yield many patterns. The most common ones found in the two languages are exemplified in this section.

In the pattern for expanded forms given below, the following symbols are used to represent their components.

C X	for	a compound composing of two components, a disyllable
W X	for	a grammatical construction of two components
X Y	for	an elaboration
X'Y'	for	an antonymy, two words having opposite meanings
B ₁ , B ₂	for	a word or a syllable which is counted as one rhymical beat (see Section B. above)
Z	for	an expanded elaborator
W	for	a word mostly of one syllable
*O	for	a 'nonsense' word or an expanded elaborator having no meaning appropriate to the context

Pattern L. 1 : C X C Y / C Y C X

Pattern L. 2 : W X W Y / W Y W X
W X'W Y' / W Y'W X'

Pattern L. 3 : B₁ B₂ Z Z

Pattern L. 4 : W *O B₁ B₂

Pattern L. 5 : B₁ *O B₁ B₂

1. Pattern L.51

C X C Y / C Y C X

A compound or a disyllable (C X) can be expanded if one of their components occurs as a member of an elaboration. Thus if X is found to be elaborated with Y, C X will be expanded into C X C Y or C Y C X, depending on the order of words where X and Y occur together. The first component, i.e., that which is represented by C, occurs twice: in the first and third positions. The elaboration of the first component with the third is not common in the two languages.

<u>Cambodian</u>	C X	//tuk-məet// (water--mouth)	'saliva'
	X Y	//məet kə:// (to speak--neck)	'to argue'
	C X C Y	//tuk məet tuk kə://	'saliva'
	C X	//pru:əy-cv̥t// (to worry--heart)	'to worry'
	X Y	//cv̥t thlæm// (heart--liver)	'heart'
	C X C Y	//pru:əy cv̥t pru:əy thlæm//	'to worry'
	C X	//nsək-srok// (person--village)	'a villager'
	X Y	//srok phu:m// (village--village)	'a village'
	C X C Y	//nsək srok nsək phu:m//	'a villager'

<u>Thai</u>	C X	/nǎ:m-tǎ:/ (water--eye)	'tears'
	Y X	/hǎ: tǎ:/ (ear--eye)	'eyes, ears'
	C Y C X	/nǎ:m hǎ: nǎ:m tǎ:/	'tears'
	C X	/hôn-nǎ:m/ (room--water)	'a water closet'
	X Y	/nǎ:m thǎ:/ (water--watersite)	'water'
	C X C Y	/hôn nǎ:m hôn thǎ:/	'a water closet'
	C X	/thó:ŋ-nǎ:/ (stomach--rice field)	'rice field'
	Y X	/rây nǎ:/ (vegetable garden-- rice field)	'land for plantation'
	C Y C X	/thó:ŋ rây thó:ŋ nǎ:/	'rice field'

2. Pattern L. 2

W X W Y / W Y W X

W X represents a certain grammatical construction. The relationship between W and X can be of any kind, e.g. that of a negator and a verb, of an actor and an action, of a verb and an object, of a verb and an adverb, etc. The first component occurs again with an elaborator of the second component, and a complex W Y is produced. The base construction and the complex W Y combine to give an expanded form of the pattern L. 2.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//bæk phnɛ:k bæk trɛciɛk// (to open--eye--to open--ear)	'to open one's eyes and ears, to be on the look out'
	//rɔ:k thəɐ rɔ:k ʔɑ:// (to search--Dharma--to search --commentary in the Buddhist law)	'to seek for Dharma'
	//phpɛ ru:p phpɛ chʔɤŋ// (to entrust--figure--to entrust --bone)	'to entrust oneself to someone'
	//khɤ:p muk khɤ:p srɛmaol// (to see--face--to see--shadow)	'to see (a person)'
	//pum dɤŋ pum yuəl// (not--to know--not--to understand)	'not to know'
	//pum tro:v pum trɔŋ// (not--right--not--honest)	'not correct'
	//krup kɑ:l krup ve:li:ɐ// (all--time--all--time)	'at all times'
	//cræn bæp cræn yɑ:ŋ// (many--type--many--sort)	'many types'
	//mu:ɐy lɤ:k mu:ɐy kri:ɐ// (one--once--one--time)	'one time'
	//ci:ɐ cɔən ci:ɐ thnɔk// (to be--level--to be--class)	'to be arranged in tiers'
	//ci:ɐ vɛək ci:ɐ kkli:ɐ// (to be--group--to be--sentence)	'to be sentences and stanzas'
	//riɐp prɛyɔk riɐp khli:ɐ// (to compose--sentence--to compose --sentence)	'to compose sentences'

Thai

/khon thâw khon kê:/ (person--old--person--old)	'old people'
/klây hũ: klây tɑ:/ (near--ear--near--eye)	'to be within sight'
/klây hũ: klây tɑ:/ (far--ear--far--eye)	'to be out of sight'
/klâp nũə klâp tue/ (to turn--flesh--to turn--body)	'to reform oneself'
/klûm ?òk klûm cay/ (to be worried--chest--to be worried--heart)	'to be worried'
/pen ɲɑ:n pen kɑ:n/ (to be--work--to be--formal)	'to be businesslike'
/pen rûəŋ pen rɑ:w/ (to be--matter--to be--*0)	'to be sensible'
/pen kò:p pen kam/ (to be--scoop up with the hands-- to be--handful)	'to be productive'
/yîp lək yîp nó:y/ (to pick up--small--to pick up --little)	'to pilfer'
/kin khâ:w kin plɑ:/ (to eat--rice--to eat--fish)	'to have a meal'
/mây rú: mây chí:/ (not--to know--not--to point)	'to pay no attention'
/mây rú: mây hěn/ (not--to know--not--to see)	'to know nothing'

One of the favourite patterns for expanded forms is the occurrence of an antonymy, the components of which are separated and occupy the second and fourth positions. The pattern W X W Y / W Y W X can be rewritten as W X'W Y' / W Y'W X' where 'X'Y' represents an antonymy or words having opposite meanings.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//dæ coh dæ læŋ// (to walk--down--to walk--up)	'to walk up and down'
	//kʉt coh kʉt læŋ// (to think--down--to think--up)	'to think about'
	//bɔ: tʃu bɔ: mɔ:k// (to drive--to go--to drive --to come)	'to drive to and fro'
	//pəɐ day pəɐ cʌ:ŋ// (to shake--hand--to shake--foot)	'tremble(hand and foot)'
	//mʌ:l dæm mʌ:l coŋ// (to look--beginning--to look --end)	'to look around'
	//mʌ:l kbɔ:l mʌ:l kɔntuŋ// (to look--head--to look--tail)	'to look carefully'
	//sɔ:m hæet sɔ:m phɔl// (to be suitable--cause--to be reasonable--result)	'to be reasonable'
	//dʌŋ tuk dʌŋ sok// (to know--suffering--to know --happiness)	'to know the hardships of life'
	//mun tec mun cræŋ// (not--less--not--much)	'just the right amount'

<u>Thai</u>	/rûep hũe rûep hă:ŋ/ (to grasp--head--to grasp--tail)	'to gather everything together'
	/thi: lên thi: ciŋ/ (occasion--to play--occasion-- serious)	'half serious'
	/yo:n hũe yo:n kôy/ (to toss--head--to toss--tail)	'to toss a coin'
	/dɤ:n khũn dɤ:n loŋ/ (to walk--up--to walk--down)	'to walk up and down'
	/klăp pay klăp mɑ:/ (to turn--to go--to turn--to come)	'to turn back and forth'
	/du: hũe du: hă:ŋ/ (to look--head--to look--tail)	'to look thoroughly'
	/du: nâ: du: lăŋ/ (to look--front--to look--back)	'to look around'
	/sôm hê:t sôm phôn/ (to be suitable--cause--to be suitable--result)	'to be reasonable'
	/kla:ŋ kôw kla:ŋ mây/ (middle--old--middle--new)	'not new not old'
	/rú: thúk rú: sùk/ (to know--suffering--to know --happiness)	'to know the hardships of life'
	/lố:m nâ: lố:m lăŋ/ (to encircle--front--to encircle --back)	'to surround'
	/rú: phế: rú: chənă?/ (to know--to lose--to know-- to win)	'to be sportsmanlike'

3. Pattern L. 3B₁ B₂ Z Z

A compound, a disyllable, an elaboration or a grammatical construct, which can be pronounced in two rhymical beats, may be expanded by adding more words which often rhyme with one of the components or syllables in the base form. These adding words will be referred to as 'expanded elaborators', and each word or syllable receiving one beat will be represented by Z in the pattern. The expanded elaborators may or may not have meaning related to the base form.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//krwəŋ prədap toptaen// (set of...--to decorate-- to decorate)	'decor'
	//so:n ru:p bat boŋ// (to lose--figure--to lose-- to throw away)	'to disappear, to lose'
	//kombaŋ bɔt muk// (to be hidden--to close--face)	'secret'
	//rəbiəp riəp riəŋ// (order--to arrange into order-- to arrange into row)	'to be in order'
	//prəmə:t mɔ:l ɲi:əy// (to abuse--to look--cheap) (to abuse--to look down upon)	'to abuse'
	//pru:əy-cɔt kriem thləəm prəmət// (to worry--dry--liver--spleen)	'to worry'

<u>Thai</u>	/ko:hòk phók lom/ (to lie--to carry--wind)	'to lie, to tell a lie'
	/ŋô:ŋôw tãw tùn/ (stupid--turtle--mole)	'stupid'
	/hũə diəw krəthiəm lî:p/ (head--one--garlic--undeveloped)	'to be alone in the world'
	/ʔòk mây sây khǒm/ (chest--burnt--intestine--bitter)	'to be miserable'
	/lǒŋ-lǎy dâ:y plû:m/ (enticed--to get--contented)	'to be enticed'
	/cǎp m̩: thǔ: khě:n/ (to hold--hand--to hold--arm)	'to hold hands'
	/kəmɾʔ:p sʔ:p sǎ:n/ (to become imprudent--*O--*O)	'to become imprudent'
	/khâ: kãw tãw líəŋ/ (servant--old--turtle--to bring up)	'old servant'
	/fay mây tây lon/ (fire--to burn--torch--to burn)	'to be on fire'

4. Pattern L. 4

W *O. B₁ B₂

Certain quadruplets and foursomes in Thai are formed by adding a 'nonsense' word, represented by the symbol *O, to help the rhyme in elaborations. If the combination of their components does not produce the satisfactory number of syllables or words, for example, if one component is a monosyllable and the other has

two syllables, or three words are combined together, a 'nonsense' word may be added to make a quadruplet or a foursome as required.

<u>Thai</u>	/khru: bɑ: ʔɑ:ca:n/	'teacher'
	(teacher--*O--teacher)	
	/wát wɑ: ʔɑ:ra:m/	'temple'
	(temple--*O--temple)	
	/sǐ: sǎn wannáʔ/	'colour'
	(colour--*O--colour)	
	/sù:ey sǎ: ʔɑ:ko:n/	'customs and duties'
	(tribute--*O--duty, tax)	
	/thâw chære: kê: chera:/	'old'
	(old--*O--old--old)	
	/khâ:w khǎ:ŋ tho:ŋ yǎ:ŋ/	'belongings'
	(rice--belongings--gold--*O)	

5. Pattern L. 5

B_1 *O B_1 B_2

This pattern of expanded forms is productive in Thai only. It is common in everyday speech but is not found in formal style of written language. A base form can be a disyllable, a compound, an elaboration or a grammatical construct, which can be pronounced in two rhymical beats. The second item or component in the base form, represented by B_2 , is treated as having undergone a reduplicative alliteration which has produced a 'nonsense' word *O with a constant vowel and final consonant, namely, /-oŋ/ plus

a tone in harmony with that of the base. The first item or component is, on its first occurrence, paired with this new 'nonsense' word; and, the new combination is placed before the base form.

<u>Thai</u>	/ʔα:hõŋ ʔα:hǎ:n/ (*O--food)	'food'
	/ce:don̄ ce:di:/ (*O--stupa)	'a stupa, apagoda'
	/nák-roŋ nák-riən/ (person--*O--person--to learn)	'a student'
	/khrûəŋ-boŋ khrûəŋ-bin/ (machine--*O--machine-- to fly)	'aeroplane'
	/chǎ:y moŋ chǎ:y-mv:y/ (indifferent--*O--indifferent --*O)	'to be indifferent'
	/kin khõŋ kin khâ:w/ (to eat--*O--to eat--rice)	'to have a meal'
	/khít ŋoŋ khít ŋv̄n/ (to think--*O--to think-- money)	'to calculate the money, to add up the price'
	/mây ʔoŋ mây ʔaw/ (not--*O--not--to take)	'not to want, not to take'

CHAPTER XIV
DISCUSSION OF ELABORATIONS

A. GENERAL DISCUSSION

Cambodian and Thai elaborations have emerged, as illustrated in Chapter XIII, from many types of lexically-bonded constructions. The relationships between the base-words and their elaborators fall into line along a scale which has a continuum of features ranging from same meanings, similar meanings, and related meanings, to non-related and opposite meanings. The boundary between, say, a synonymous iterative and an associated iterative, or between an associated iterative and a polymer, cannot be clearly drawn. There will always be a border-line case. Though the literal translation provided in the brackets of each example, and the English equivalents, given in inverted commas, may suggest a particular type of lexical relationship between the two components, this should not be taken as an absolute judgement. There are always different shades of meaning between individual items in Cambodian and Thai which are labelled as the same; but these minimal differences are not regarded as being relevant at the slightly more general level of meaning on which this part of the comparison is being carried out. In general, therefore, lexical meanings and their selection for classification into various types of elaboration are treated in a very wide sense of the word 'meaning', and the main interest

is to bring out the patterns of elaborations which occur in parallel in the two languages.

In the comparison of Cambodian and Thai elaborations it is found that not only are the patterns parallel but also many items of the same meaning are composed of components which, when compared in sequential order, fall under Instances 1 and 3 of the comparison. This would indicate that speakers of the two languages influence one another in their way of thinking and expressing things by means of elaborated forms.

B. SIMILARITIES OF LEXICAL COMBINATIONS IN ELABORATION

The Cambodian and Thai elaborations which have the same lexical meaning and the same grammatical function will be exemplified side by side in this section to display the similarity and closeness in their patterns and lexical usages.

1. Iteratives

<u>Instances of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1 + 1	//phoŋ thu:li:// (dust--dust)	/phǒŋ thuli:/ (dust--dust)	dust
1 + 1	//trəp sɔmbat// (treasure--treasure)	/sáp sǒmbăt/ (treasure--treasure)	treasure
1 + 1	//yues sək// (rank--honour)	/yót sək/ (rank--honour)	honour
1 + 1	//kɑ: ŋi:ə// (work--work, duty)	/kɑ:n ŋɑ:n/ (work--work)	work, duty

<u>Instances of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1 + 1	//hoh hæə// (to fly--to fly)	/hòʔ hǎ:n/ (to fly--to fly)	to fly
1 + 1	//bæp yɑ:n// (type--type)	/bè:p yǎ:n/ (type--type)	type, sort
3 + 3	//put mɛ:n// (true--true)	/thé: ciŋ/ (true--true)	true, truly
3 + 3	//cəs cəəri:ə// (old--old)	/kè: thǎw/ (old--old)	old
3 + 3	//chaot lŋuəŋ// (stupid--ignorant)	/ŋò: khǎw/ (stupid--ignorant)	stupid
3 + 3	//khpom kɔmdə:// (slave--slave)	/khǎ: thǎ:t/ (slave--slave)	slave, servant
3 + 3	//cək cbəs// (clear--clear)	/cəm chát/ (clear--clear)	clear, clearly
3 + 3	//ʔiən khmas// (shy--shy)	/niəm ʔɑ:y/ (shy--shy)	shy

2. Polymers

<u>Instances of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1 + 1	//ʔossɑ: phyi:əyi:əm// (industrious--persevere)	/ʔùtsǎ: phəyɑ:yɑ:m/ (industrious--persevere)	to be industrious
1 + 1	//miəŋ mɿ:l// (to glance sideways --to look)	/miəŋ mɿ:n/ (to glance sideways --to look)	to glance, to look sideways

<u>Instances of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 3	//prak mi:əs// (money, silver--gold)	/ŋʏn thə:ŋ/ (money, silver--gold)	money

3. Reduplicatives

Reduplicatives involve the arrangement and appreciation of certain sound-patterns. In Cambodian, there are 11 simple vowels in the first register (e, e:, α, α:, ɔ, ɔ:, o, o:, ʋ, ʋ:,), 11 simple vowels in the second register (î, î:, ê, ê:, ô, ô:, ù, ù:, ʋ:, ʋ:, ɛ:), 7 diphthongs on the first register (αə, ə, u:ə, iə, wə, ə, au) and 6 diphthongs on the second register (î:ə, ù:ə, ʋə, ʋə, ôə, êə) (Jacob 1968, pp.29-30)¹³. The vowels which occur together in alliterative or chiming reduplicatives do not occur in constant pairs. However, where it is possible to arrange for preferred sequences, it is noticeable that most vowels in the preceding position are closer and the following vowels opener, as for examples, //phde:s phdα:s// 'to be careless', //srənok srənα:n// 'to be happy, comfortable', //rwŋ pʋŋ// 'to do with all one's might', etc. The consonant sounds occurring in alliterative reduplicatives are mostly plosive consonants, and in rhyming reduplicatives, plosives (c, b, k), nasal (m), sibilant (s), labio-dental semi-vowel (v) and lateral (l) occur. There are no constant patterns for reduplication such as are found in the Thai language (cf. Section C.3 and E.7 in ...).

Chapter XIII). Another observation which can be made upon Cambodian reduplicatives is that many reduplicatives are formed more by reference to the orthography than to pronunciation. Thus vowels having the same orthographic sign but realized differently are found to pair together (Jacob 1968, p.189)^{13*}, and, therefore, words are reduplicated by their consonantal initials or finals instead of by vowels and consonants. For examples, //səndap thnəp// 'method, order' is written santap thnap, //smaok kro:k// 'dirty' is written smaok kraok, etc.**

In Thai, there are 18 simple vowels (i, i:, e, e:, ɛ, ɛ:, ʌ, ʌ:, ɔ, ɔ:, o, o:, u, u:, w, w:, ɤ, ɤ:) and 3 diphthongs (ie, we, ue). Rhyming and chiming can be analysed in such a way that a more consistent phonological explanation may be given. Rhyming is always ear-rhyme with or without tone harmony. If rhyming cuts across the orthographic rules, the pronunciation chooses an audible rhyme for preference. In chiming reduplicatives, most vowels that pair together are vowels of the same degree of closeness, and back vowels normally precede front vowels. For examples, /rŭŋ rŭŋ/ 'ragged', /ʔŭ: ʔi:/ 'muffled (voice)', /ʔɔ:n ʔɛ:/ 'weak',

* This practice is also found in Cambodian versification where eye-rhyme is accepted and can ruin the ear-rhyme.

** It is possible that the formation of these reduplicatives took place before the Cambodian vowel system developed its two series (Pinnow 1957)⁵².

/rǒ:ŋ rě:ŋ/ 'few, scarce', etc. There are also a large number of chiming reduplicatives in which other pairs of vowels occur, more than one example can be found for each of these pairs of vowels (Phraya Anuman Rajadhon 1956⁵³, Haas 1963⁵⁴).

Examples of reduplicatives in Cambodian and Thai which have the same forms and lexical meaning are given below.

<u>Instances of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1 + 1	//mənuh mənɪ:ə// (human-being--*O)	/mənút mənɔ:/ (human-being--*O)	human-being
1 + 1	//prɔ:m priəŋ// (to agree--*O)	/phró:m phriəŋ/ (to be ready--*O)	to agree, to be harmonious
1 + 1	//khliəv khlɔ:/ (*O--brave)	/klêw klâ:/ (*O--brave)	brave

4. Antonymies

Examples of antonymies consisting of comparable components in Cambodian and Thai are given below.

<u>Instances of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
1 + 1	//sok tuk// (happy--to suffer)	/sùk thúk/ (happy--to suffer)	welfare, happiness and unhappiness
1 + 1	//hæet phol// (cause--result)	/hè:t phǒn/ (cause--result)	reason
1 + 1	//ku:ə pum-ku:ə// (suitable--unsuitable)	/khuən mǎy-khuən/ (suitable--unsuitable)	suitable and unsuitable

<u>Instances of Comparison</u>	<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
3 + 3	//khos tro:v// (wrong--right)	/phît thû:k/ (wrong--right)	responsibility, whether right or wrong
3 + 3	//cwt chŋɑ:y// (near--far)	/klây klây/ (near--far)	all, everywhere
3 + 3	//to:c thom// (small--big)	/lék yǎy/ (small--big)	all sizes

Cambodian and Thai antonymies often occur in combination with other words to form compounds or expressions. The resultant forms and their usage are very similar in the two languages, as can be seen from the examples below :

<u>Cambodian</u>	<u>Thai</u>	<u>English</u>
//tətu:əl khos tro:v// (to receive--wrong--right)	/rǎp phît chû:p/ (to receive--wrong--right)	to take responsibility for what is right or wrong
//srok to:c thom// (town--small--big)	/muəŋ nŋ:y yǎy/ (town--small--big)	all countries
//seckdɿy ku:ə pum-ku:ə// (matter--suitable-- unsuitable)	/kɑ:n khuən mǎy-khuən/ (action--suitable-- unsuitable)	suitable or unsuitable deeds*

* These expressions occur as part of the complimentary close of a certain type of formal letter.

<u>Cambodian</u>	//seckdɿy ku:ə pum ku:ə so:m ʔəphey to:s// 'Please forgive anything unsuitable (and suitable).'
<u>Thai</u>	/khu:ən mǎy khu:ən lé:w tē: cə prô:t/ 'Suitable or unsuitable as you please'

5. Expanded Forms

There are three comparable patterns of expanded forms in the Cambodian and Thai languages, viz. patterns L. 1, L. 2, and L. 3. Of all the examples shown in Chapter XIII, examples for pattern L. 2, namely, $W X W Y / W Y W X$ and $W X'W Y' / W Y'W X'$ are more numerous than others. When comparing the components of these expanded forms in sequential order, the corresponding components in the Cambodian and Thai forms show very similar ways of expressing the same idea. A considerable number of examples give Instances 1 and 3 as the result of comparison.

Instance of Comparison : $1 + 1 + 1 + 1 = I$

<u>Cambodian</u>	//sə:m hæet sə:m phəl//	'to be reasonable'
	(suitable--cause--suitable--result)	

<u>Thai</u>	/sǝm hɛ:t sǝm phǝn/	'to be reasonable'
	(suitable--cause--suitable--result)	

Instance of Comparison : $1 + 3 + 1 + 3 = I$

<u>Cambodian</u>	//tɛəŋ thŋəy tɛəŋ yup//	'days and nights'
	(and--day--and--night)	

<u>Thai</u>	/thǎŋ wən thǎŋ khw:n/	'days and nights'
	(and--day--and--night)	

Instance of Comparison : $3 + 1 + 3 + 1 = I$

<u>Cambodian</u>	//dʋŋ tuk dʋŋ sok//	'to know the hardship
	(to know--suffering--to know--	-of life'
	happiness)	

<u>Thai</u>	/rú: thúk rú: sùk/	'to know the hardship
	(to know--suffering--to know--	-of life'
	happiness)	

Instance of Comparison : 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 = I

Cambodian //bɔː tɿu bɔː mɔːk// 'to drive to and fro'
(to drive--to go--to drive--
to come)

Thai /khǎp pay khǎp mǎː/ 'to drive to and fro'
(to drive--to go--to drive--
to come)

Instance of Comparison : 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 = I

Cambodian //mɿːl kbaːl mɿːl kontuy// 'to look carefully'
(to look--head--to look--tail)

Thai /duː hǔe duː hǎːŋ/ 'to look carefully'
(to look--head--to look--tail)

In the following examples elaborated forms in the two languages occur in opposite order.

Cambodian //dæ coh dæ læŋ// 'to walk up and down'
(to walk--to go down--to walk--
to go up)

Thai /dɿːn khûn dɿːn lon/ 'to walk up and down'
(to walk--to go up--to walk--
to go down)

Cambodian //ceh knoŋ ceh krau// 'to know inside out'
(to know--inside--to know--
outside)

Thai /rúː nǎːk rúː nǎy/ 'to know inside out'
(to know--outside--to know--
inside)

C. PROPERTIES OF ELABORATIONS

In addition to the embellishment of speech forms, the practice of using elaborations in the two languages appears to add in many ways to the effective use of simple items. Some important functions can be stated here :

1. Specification

For items that can produce more than one meaning, either homophonous words or words with divergent basic and conventional meanings, elaborators will help to specify the required meaning. Therefore, one base-word can be found separately with a number of elaborators, each of which clarifies the meaning of its base-word in its own particular way.

Examples in Cambodian

//kɑ: ɲi:ə// (<u>work</u> --work)	'work'
//kɑ: pi:ə// (<u>to protect</u> --to protect)	'to protect'
//ri:əp kɑ:// (to arrange-- <u>to marry</u>)	'to marry'
//riəp riən// (<u>to prepare</u> --in order)	'to arrange, to place in order'
//riəp rɔ:y// (<u>to prepare</u> --*0)	'neat, in order'
//riəp cəm// (<u>to prepare</u> --exact)	'to prepare'

Examples in Cambodian

// <u>rɔɛp</u> riɛp//	'to describe'
(<u>to count</u> --to prepare)	
//ri:ɛy <u>rɔɛp</u> //	'to explain'
(to spread out-- <u>to count</u>)	
// <u>rɔɛp</u> ʔɑ:n//	'to esteem'
(<u>to count</u> --to read)	
// <u>rɔɛp</u> rɔ:k//	'to want to associate with'
(<u>to count</u> --to seek)	

Examples in Thai

/khǎn khǎ:n/	'to chant'
(<u>to chant</u> --to answer)	
/khòp khǎn/	'to be amusing'
(*0-- <u>to be amusing</u>)	
/kùet khǎn/	'to be strict'
(to tie-- <u>to tighten</u>)	
/cò:k khǎn/	'a small bowl for drinking water'
(small bowl-- <u>bowl for fetching water</u>)	
/ <u>rót</u> chǎ:t/	'taste'
(<u>taste</u> --nature)	
/ <u>rót</u> rǎ:/	'vehicles, cars'
(<u>vehicle</u> --*0)	
/phǔ:k phǎn/	'to tie, to be pre-occupied with'
(to 'tie-- <u>to bind</u>)	

Examples in Thai

/phǎw <u>phan</u> /	'race'
(tribe-- <u>genus</u>)	
/phuə <u>phan</u> /	'to be involved'
(to cluster-- <u>to bind</u>)	
/phǐw <u>phan</u> /	'complexion, skin'
(skin-- <u>colouring</u>)	

2. Generalization

Some iteratives and all antonymies are elaborations that give an overall meaning to the general idea expressed by the sum total of components of the elaborations. In the case where no collective nouns exist in the language, elaborations of this type serve as a means to produce them. Certain elaborations with generalized meanings may be found to occur side-by-side with loan-words, especially those from Sanskritic languages.

Examples in Cambodian

//ko: krəbvy//	'cattle'
(ox--buffalo)	
//tok tu://	'furniture'
(table--cupboard)	
//hæet phol//	'reason'
(cause--result)	

Examples in Thai

/wuə khwɑ:y/ (ox--buffalo)	'cattle'
/phrɪk kəpɪʔ hǎ:m krəthiəm/ (chilli--shrimp paste--onion--garlic)	'spices and seasoning'
/hə:t phǎn/ (cause--result)	'reason'

3. Clarification

Thai is a tonal monosyllabic language and the tones can be misunderstood, not because they are misheard but because they are the most subject to variation as between dialects. Difficulties in hearing or learning other dialects are sometimes overcome by elaborating monosyllables where this helps to avoid ambiguity; additional segmental phonemes are provided, which do not change the meaning but merely help to clarify it.

Examples in Thai

/khɛ:ŋ <u>khǎ:</u> / (shins-- <u>legs</u>)	'legs'
/khɪŋ <u>khǎ:</u> / (ginger-- <u>galangal</u>)	'galangal used as spices in cooking'
/ <u>khǎ:</u> thǎ:t/ (<u>slave</u> --slave)	'slave'
/ <u>khǎ:</u> khǎ:y/ (<u>to trade</u> --to sell)	'trade'

Examples in Thai

/ň̩: ť̩:/	'face, countenance'
(face--eyes)	
/ň̩: ň̩n/	'dense'
(thick--packed)	
/ř̩y ň̩:/	'farm land'
(plantation--rice field)	

CHAPTER XV

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

A. SUMMARY OF RESULTS OF THE TYPOLOGICAL STUDY

The typological comparative study of Cambodian and Thai linguistic items by grammatical and lexical criteria in the manner presented in the previous chapters of this thesis leads to the following results :-

1. Parallelism in the Use and Construction of Corresponding Grammatical Items in the Two Languages

The analysis of grammatical items in the Cambodian and Thai languages as carried out in Chapters IV, VI and VIII, by using the same criteria of classification and the same terminology, indicates a high degree of conformity in their use and construction. Contrastive features are found in the minority of cases. Thus the five classes of isolatives, namely, greetings, interjections, vocatives, initiating expressions and responding particles, occur similarly except for one slight difference in a sub-class of the responding particles. In the substantive classification, five classes of words are set up, viz., nouns, pronouns, numerals, classifiers and determinatives. The function of each class that bears the same name in either language appears to be the same. The difference exists only in sub-classes of nouns and in a minor

part of the characteristics of numerals (Chapter VI). The predicatives are classified into twelve classes, namely, auxiliaries, negators, initiating verbs, operative verbs, adjectival verbs, retro-active verbs, verbal linkers, completive verbs, post-verbs, adverbials, verb classifiers and final particles. All classes occur in both languages with the same functions. Therefore, it can be said that the word-classes in Cambodian and Thai justify an analysis made on the same basis and with the same terminology.

The grammatical constructs, as illustrated in Chapters VI and VIII, taking many word-classes into account, also show the closeness in the usage and construction of Cambodian and Thai linguistic items. However, certain types of construction, not so common in one of the two languages, may occur frequently in the other language.

The analysis of compounds in Chapter XI also shows the grammatical parallelism of the underlying structures from which those compounds are derived. Differences in the corresponding underlying structures of the two languages are not found in the examples under study.

2. Parallelism in Lexical Selection and Usage

The large number of loan-words, whether loans between the two languages or loans from other common sources, causes the

Cambodian and Thai lexicons to overlap one with another to a very high degree. Words with similar linguistic forms and lexical meanings abound in the two languages and the lexical comparison of all sub-classes accordingly results in 'abundant' and 'moderate' occurrences of Instance 1 : SG SO SL, viz., words that stem from the same origin and have the same or similar grammatical and lexical features.

As for native words of either language, there are great numbers of comparable words which have a similar scope of lexical meaning. It is demonstrated in Chapters V, VII and IX that the degree of occurrence of words of the same or similar meanings and comparable grammatical features but of different origins is also very high. These words belong to Instance 3 : SG DO SL.

The parallelism in the lexical usages of Cambodian and Thai words can be clearly seen in the lexical combination of compounds where words of the same meaning and grammar (Instances 1 and/or 3) are combined to give compounds of Instance I : SL SG. An interesting case of parallelism is that of the idiomatic compounds, presented in Chapter XII. Their meaning cannot be deduced from their component parts, yet the individual meanings derived from those corresponding components and the overall meanings too are the same in both languages.

3. Parallelism in Certain Stylistic Constructions

In the present work, elaborations are chosen as the main type of stylistic construction. They are classified into five patterns according to the lexical relationship between their components. All the five patterns occur in common in both the Cambodian and Thai languages (Chapter XIV) and the effect of elaborations is almost the same, though the phonological realization of 'nonsense' words to be combined in reduplicatives is different. However, there are some few sub-patterns that occur in one language with no comparable pattern in the other (Chapter XIII).

B. DISCUSSION

The comparison of Cambodian and Thai grammatical and lexical items in this thesis gives a clear picture of two genetically unrelated languages that have come to possess very similar linguistic features in such a way that a single description of one language can be simultaneously applied to the other. Moreover, the Cambodians and the Thais appreciate the same type of language embellishment, and use certain styles of speech in much the same way. Elaborations are widely used in ordinary everyday speech as well as in the written language. The patterns of elaboration, as well as the effects achieved by them, are strikingly similar in the two languages, and, as the lexical comparison shows, the similarities are both in the pattern and in the lexicon.

Factors that are responsible for these grammatical and lexical as well as stylistic similarities may be of two kinds, namely, common linguistic features which are shared by all South East Asian languages, and the influence of one language on the other, i.e., borrowing. In the case of the Cambodian and Thai languages, the factors contributing to the similarities are both the former and the latter with a strong emphasis on the latter, since it can be illustrated that borrowing occurs between these two languages at the word level as well as at the construction level. Moreover, the borrowing goes so far as to affect certain styles of speech.

The features that are probably the common heritage of speakers of all South East Asian languages, and which are noticeable in the comparison of Cambodian and Thai, are the following :

(i) The classification of grammatical items involves a few classes that seem to be widely stabilized in many, if not all, South East Asian languages. Quasi-pronouns, for example, are used in Burmese and Vietnamese (Cooke 1968)⁵⁵, classifiers are a grammatical feature of Burmese (Okell 1969)⁵⁵, and Vietnamese (Truong Van Chinh 1970)⁵⁶.

(ii) Reduplication is used grammatically as well as lexically in Burmese (Khin Khin Aye 1965)⁵⁷ and in Malay (Adam and Butler)⁵⁸.

(iii) There is a close similarity in the scope of lexical meaning of many words in the languages of the area. This was demonstrated for Cambodian and Thai in a list of 'carring' words (see Chapter IX). This reflects not only a common cultural heritage of methods of carrying but also of similarity in linguistic choice which leads to the enrichment of the vocabulary. This feature may be contrasted with the comparable lexicon of the English language in which adverbial expressions are used with the basic 'carry' word (e.g. carry on the head, carry on the back, carry on the hip etc.). A few equivalent forms from other South East Asian languages can be given here for illustration.

<u>Vietnamese</u>	/gánh/	'to carry on a pole'
	/vác/	'to carry on the shoulder'
	/cõng/	'to carry on the back'
	/bõng/	'to carry a child in the arms'
	/ôm/	'to carry in both arms hugged against the body'
	/xách/	'to carry suspended from the hand'
	/mang/	'to carry over the shoulder on a strap close to body'
<u>Malay</u>	/kkandar/	'to carry on a pole (one person)
	/usong/	'to carry a heavy load on a pole (two persons)
	/dukong/	'to carry on the hip'
	/pikul/	'to carry on the shoulder'

	/junjong/	'to carry on the head'
	/bimbit/	'to carry suspended from the hand'
	/menyandang/	'to carry over the shoulder on a strap close to body'
<u>Burmese</u>	/ywe?/	'to carry on the head'
	/htan/	'to carry on the shoulder'
	/pou/	'to carry on the back'
	/lwe/	'to carry slung over one shoulder and across body'
	/kain/	'to held in hand'
	/hswe/	'to carry hanging from hand'

(iv) Word-classes generally recognized are classes such as greetings, interjections, nouns, operative verbs, adverbials and negators. These are 'universals' in the widest sense.

(v) Compound formation is a process practised in almost every language though the derivation, forms and lexical realization may be vastly different.

Similar features of language that are the effect of borrowing between Cambodian and Thai, deducible from the lexical comparison of simple and constructed items, can be summarized as follows:

(i) The greeting terms based on Sanskritic words are probably the result of mutual borrowing since the forms are remote from the Sanskrit origins but close between Cambodian and Thai. They have in fact been recently introduced into the language in

order to provide an equivalent to greeting terms in Western languages.

(ii) The use of initiating expressions for politeness in the Thai Royal Terminology is obviously due to the influence of Cambodian. The Cambodian usage of initiating expressions for politeness appears in all forms of speech whereas in Thai the initiating expressions are involved only in the Royal Terminology and in salutations in letter writing. Thus, the Thai usage is more limited than the Cambodian. The expressions themselves, compared in Chapter V, show a great similarity in the choice of terms.

(iii) The practice of addressing the sovereign in language of particular deference is a world-wide feature, though it has probably produced more special vocabularies in the East than in the West. In South East Asian countries, especially in those where the king came to be regarded as a devarāja, a divine king, a quite complex system of royal terminology arose. The two sets of terms, given above in Chapter V, reveal a very close similarity between Cambodian and Thai in this respect. A special instance of closeness is the common use of the words for 'head' and 'foot' to represent the relative positions of king and populace. Bearing in mind point (ii) above, one may wonder whether the whole Royal Terminology came into Thai via Cambodian.

(iv) The numeral names of the 'tens' set are borrowed from Thai into Cambodian.

(v) There seems to be evidence to indicate that the modern Cambodian usage of unit classifiers may have been borrowed into Cambodian from Thai. In the first place, the use of unit classifiers is largely optional in Cambodian whereas it is compulsory in Thai (see Section C in Chapter VI). Secondly, a stylistic use in modern Cambodian literature of a Thai grammatical pattern for classifier and determinative (e.g. //cepcien vuən nih// 'this ring') suggests borrowing by Cambodian. Lastly, as is shown in Appendix C, historical evidence may be brought to bear on this subject. Changes which took place in the Cambodian grammatical use of classifiers between the Old and Middle Khmer period, strongly suggest Thai influence.

(vi) The use of extended forms in elaborations seems from the evidence of the Cambodian and Thai inscriptions, exemplified in Appendix C, to have originated in Thai and to have been borrowed into Cambodian.

C. CONCLUSION

From the evidence presented in this thesis it may safely be concluded that two languages that have been exposed to the process of cultural exchange over a considerable period of time can influence one another grammatically, lexically, as well as

stylistically, despite fundamental dissimilarities.

It is a matter of historical record that the Thais, following their migration into the Indo-chinese peninsula in the twelfth century, mixed with the Cambodians for a certain period of time and then set up their own kingdom in 1277. At this stage the Thai language did not show Cambodian influence and the first Thai inscription (King Rama Khamhaeng's inscription in 1292 A.D.) was almost totally Thai. However, the inscription laid down in the reign of King Lu'daiyarāja (Dharmarāja I), the grandson of King Rama Khamhaeng, comprised more Cambodian words. Moreover, 'The Inscription of the Mango Grove (1347 A.D.) citing the activities of King Lu'daiyarāja himself was totally in the Cambodian language and orthography (Coedès 1924)⁵⁹.

The influence of Cambodian on Thai became very strong by the Ayudhya period (1354-1767 A.D. approxiamtely) in spite of the fact that the relationship between the two countries was marred by several wars.* The Royal Terminology and the protocol of the court of Ayudhya, the regulations for the palace and the laws were a reduplication of those of Angkor (Coedès 1962, p.147)⁶⁰ One very convincing piece of evidence of Cambodian influence is

* To quote Coedès, 'The new Siamese monarchy seems to have made every effort to continue the traditions of the rulers of Angkor...' (Coedès 1962, p.146)⁶⁰.

the use by the Thais of the 'Oath of Loyalty to the Sovereign', this was taken as a complete text from Cambodian into Thai.

From the second half of the Ayudhya period onwards, Cambodian civilization came in its turn under Thai influence. Many Cambodian princes had their education in the court of Thailand. Thai literature enjoyed great prestige among educated and aristocratic circles in Cambodia. Many literary works, both of Thai origin and from Sanskritic and Buddhist sources, were translated into Cambodian with some adaptation. Thai words were borrowed and Cambodian loan-words in Thai re-borrowed into Cambodian. There still exists a fair number of bilingual speakers in many provinces of Cambodia and Thailand; and it is still true, as evidenced in many modern Cambodian novels consulted in the preparation of the present work, that the Cambodian people read Thai literature and are required to know the Thai language as a matter of social preference. However, in spite of this cultural process and its consequential effect which still prevails over the two languages, the convergence between certain Cambodian and Thai linguistic features, namely, functions, patterns and lexicon that have constituted the bulk of the findings of this thesis has its limits; the Cambodians and Thais retain their distinct mother tongues, unconscious of any loss of linguistic individuality.

The thesis thus raises questions awaiting answers in further investigations. The details of the cultural exchanges which took place between Thailand and Cambodia and between other South-East Asian countries would make an interesting historical study, while further linguistic research might be carried out on the general subject of the typological adaptation of one language to another and the degree to which such adaptation can take place. From the linguistic point of view, the first of these projects clearly demands an extension of the synchronic study into a diachronic dimension. The historical evidence, such as that briefly introduced in Appendix C, should be further investigated in order to clarify the linguistic features that are transferred. For the second project it is hoped that the method of analysis used in this work will contribute to the discovery of factors involved in the interplay of languages. In particular, the recourse to modern novels as repositories of linguistic data for various styles, including the spoken vernacular, has proved to be useful in the present study and might well be recommended as a method for comparing synchronically any two languages of South East Asia. Further work along these lines should lead to a sound understanding of the rôle played by language in cultural exchanges between peoples whose basic mother tongues may be vastly different.

APPENDIX A

PHONOLOGICAL TRANSCRIPTION AND TRANSLITERATION
OF CAMBODIAN AND THAI

1. Phonological Transcription of Cambodian

The transcription used for Cambodian is based on the system devised by Professor E.J.A. Henderson (Henderson 1952, pp.149-174)⁵¹. Some minor changes have been made as follows in order to simplify the transcription and to avoid certain confusions in the comparison of the Cambodian and Thai languages :-

(i) Following Mrs. J.M. Jacob, the symbols //αʁ//, //αv//, //w̃e// are changed to //αə//, //au// and //ue//, respectively, and the symbols //i:ə// and //iə// are used to distinguish the diphthong written អ៊ែ from that written អ៊េ and អ៊ែ (Jacob 1968, p.45)¹³.

(ii) The register sign ˘ on vowel symbols, and the final //r// are omitted.

(iii) The double slant lines are used to bracket the Cambodian transcription.

2. Phonological Transcription of Thai

The transcription used for Thai in the present work follows the system used in the author's previous thesis entitled 'A Study of Cognate Words in Thai and Cambodian' (Nacaskul 1962)⁸ with minor alterations as follows :-

(i) The digraphs for high closure diphthongs (i.e., those beginning with an open vowel and ending with a close vowel) /ai/, /oi/, /au/, /eu/ ... are changed to /ay/, /oy/, /aw/, /ew/ ... in order to conform to the phonological characteristic of the Thai language.

(ii) The tone marks are changed to conform to those of the widely accepted Haas system (Haas 1963)⁵⁴.

3. Transliteration of Cambodian and Thai Words

Transliterations for Cambodian and Thai words are needed in transcribing titles of Cambodian and Thai books referred to in this thesis. The system used for Cambodian is based on that set up by the Association des Ecrivains Khmers. It gives a close approximation of how the words should be pronounced, without using extra phonetic alphabets. The transcription used for words of Sanskrit origin which are not naturalised is also included ; it is closer to the traditional system of transliteration.

<u>Cambodian</u> <u>Vowel</u>	<u>Transcription for</u> <u>Sanskritic Word</u>	<u>Transcription for</u> <u>Vowel with វ</u>	<u>Transcription for</u> <u>Vowel with វ</u>
័	a, ea	a	ea
៊	i	e	i
៌	i	ei	iy
៎	-	i	u
៏	-	oeu	oeu

<u>Cambodian</u> <u>Vowel</u>	<u>Transcription for</u> <u>Sanskritic Word</u>	<u>Transcription for</u> <u>Vowel with ʀ</u>	<u>Transcription for</u> <u>Vowel with ʀ̂</u>
ṭ	u	o	u
ṭ̄	u	o	ou
ṭ̄	-	ua	ua
ṭ̄	-	oe	oe
ṭ̄	-	ie	ie
ṭ̄	-	oeu	oeu
ṭ̄	-	e	e
ṭ̄	-	ae	e
ṭ̄	ai	ai	ey
ṭ̄	o	ao	au
ṭ̄	au	av	eu
ṭ̄	-	om	um
ṭ̄	-	am	um
ṭ̄	-	am	uam
ṭ̄	-	ah	eah
ṭ̄	-	oh	uh
ṭ̄	-	oh	uoh
ṭ̄	a	a	ea
inherent vowel	a	o	ou, o

<u>Cambodian</u> <u>Consonant</u>	<u>Transcription for</u> <u>Sanskritic Word</u>	<u>Transcription for</u> <u>Initial</u>	<u>Transcription for</u> <u>Final</u>
ក	k	k	k
ខ	kh	kh	kh
គ	g	k	k
ឃ	gh	kh	-
ង	ṅ	ng	ng
ច	c	ch	ch
ឆ	ch	chh	ch
ជ	j	ch	ch
ឈ	jh	chh	-
ញ	ñ	nh	nh
ដ	t	d	t
ថ	th	th	th
ឌ	d	d	t
ឍ	dh	dh	-
ណ	n	n	n
ត	t	t	t
ថ	th	th	th
ទ	d	t	t
ឝ	dh	th	th
ន	n	n	n
ប	p	b	p
ប្រ	-	p	p

<u>Cambodian</u> <u>Consonant</u>	<u>Transcription for</u> <u>Sanskritic Word</u>	<u>Transcription for</u> <u>Initial</u>	<u>Transcription for</u> <u>Final</u>
ផ	ph	ph	p
ព	b	p	p
ភ	bh	ph	p
ម	m	m	m
យ	y	y	y
រ	r	r	r
ល	l	l	l
វ	v	v	v
ស	s	s	s
ហ	h	h	h
ឡ	ḷ	l	l
អ	-	-	-

The Thai system of transliteration is based on that devised by the Royal Institute in 1939. It is called 'The General System of Phonetic Transcription of Thai Characters into Roman' (Royal Institute 1965, pp.189-192)⁶¹. The system comprises the following symbols of transcription:-

<u>Thai Vowel</u>	<u>Transcription</u>
-๐ ๑ -๓	a
-๔	am
๕ ๖	i
๗ ๘	u'

Thai VowelTranscription

ุ	ู				u
เ-ะ	เ-็	เ-			e
แ-ะ	แ-				ae
โ-ะ	โ-				o
เ-าะ	-อ				ɔ
เ-อะ	เ-็	เ-อ			oe
เ-ียะ	เ-ีย				ia
เ-ือะ	เ-ือ				u'a
-ัวะ	-ัว				ua
ไ-	ไ-	-ัย	ไ-ย	-าย	ai
เ-า	-าว				ao
ุย					ui
โ-ย					oi
-อย					ɔi
เ-ย					oei
เ-ือย					u'ai
-วย					uai
-ัว					iu
เ-ัว	เ-ัว				eo
แ-ว					aeo
เ-ียว					ieo

<u>Thai Vowel</u>		<u>Transcription</u>
ฤ (เสียง รี)	ฤ	ru'
ฤ (เสียง ริ)		ri
ฤ (เสียง เรอ)		roe
ฤ ฤ		lu'

<u>Thai Consonant</u>	<u>Transcription for Initial</u>	<u>Transcription for Final</u>
ก	k	k
ข ฃ ค ฅ ฌ	kh	k
ง	ng	ng
จ	čh	t
ฉ ช จ	ch	t
ญ	y	n
ด ฎ ฏ (บางคำ)	d	t
ต ฏ	t	t
ถ ฐ ฑ ฒ ฎ ฏ	th	t
น ฌ	n	n
บ	b	p
ป	p	p
ผ พ ฝ	ph	p
ฝ ฟ	f	p
ม	m	m
ย	y	-

<u>Thai Consonant</u>	<u>Transcription for Initial</u>	<u>Transcription for Final</u>
ร	r	r
ล พ	l	l
ว	w	-
ซ นร ศ ษ ส	s	t
ห ฮ	h	-

APPENDIX B
ORDER OF RANKS OF MEMBERS OF ROYAL FAMILIES
IN CAMBODIA AND THAILAND

For ease of reference when the Royal Terminology is discussed in Chapter V on isolatives, members of royal families in Cambodia and Thailand are arranged in six principal ranks of significance. The classification of royal titles into particular orders of rank is based on the type and usage of words and terms as used by a commoner when addressing or referring to a member of royal family or by one member of royal family to another member.* It is noted here that the corresponding ranks in the Cambodian and Thai system may not be exactly comparable as far as the status of the member of each rank is concerned. However, the division in either family is appropriate to the hierarchical importance. Moreover, the corresponding Cambodian and Thai title-names of the royal personages designated as being of the same rank appear to be very close together.

* References are also made to Bitard's 'Les membres de la famille royale du Cambodge et leurs titres d'après l'ordonnance de S.M. An Duan' (Bitard 1957)⁶².

1. Members and Titles of Rank 1

<u>Status</u>	king
<u>Title in Cambodian</u>	//prəh bə:t səmdac prəh//
<u>Title in Thai</u>	/phrá? bə:t sǒmdèt phrá?/
<u>Status</u>	queen
<u>Title in Cambodian</u>	//səmdac prəh ʔakkaməhe:sɿy//
<u>Title in Thai</u>	/sǒmdèt phrá? nɑ:ŋ cāw/

2. Members and Titles of Rank 2

<u>Status</u>	queen of the previous king
<u>Title in Thai</u>	/sǒmdèt phrá? nɑ:ŋ/
<u>Status</u>	the queen mother
<u>Title in Cambodian</u>	//səmdac prəh ri:əc cuənəni://
<u>Title in Thai</u>	/sǒmdèt phrá? rā:tchəchonnəni:/
<u>Status</u>	a king's son whose mother is the queen
<u>Title in Cambodian</u>	//səmdac prəh borom ri:əc bottrɑ://
<u>Title in Thai</u>	/sǒmdèt phrá? cāw lû:k yɑ: thɿ:/
<u>Status</u>	a king's daughter whose mother is the queen
<u>Title in Cambodian</u>	//səmdac prəh borom ri:əc bottrɿy//
<u>Title in Thai</u>	/sǒmdèt phrá? cāw lû:k thɿ:/

Status king's son or daughter whose mother is
a member of royal family

Title in Cambodian //səmdac//

Title in Thai /sǝmdèt cāw fá:/ 'son'
/sǝmdèt cāw fá: yǐn/ 'daughter'

Status heir-apparent

Title in Cambodian //səmdac prəəh ʔupəyo:ri:əc//

Status a Rank 3 prince who is older than the king
and is officially appointed to the title

Title in Thai /phráʔ wə:rəwəŋ thɯ: phráʔ ʔəŋ cāw/

3. Members and Titles of Rank 3

Status king's son or daughter whose mother is
a commoner

Title in Cambodian //prəəh ʔəŋ mcas//

Title in Thai /phráʔ ʔəŋ cāw/ 'son'
/phráʔ ʔəŋ cāw yǐn/ 'daughter'

Status a Rank 4 prince who is older than the king
and is officially appointed to the title

Title in Thai /phráʔ wə:rəwəŋ thɯ: məm cāw/

Status son or daughter of parents who are both
/prəəh ʔəŋ mcas/

Title in Cambodian //prəəh ʔəŋ mcas//

Status son or daughter of a Rank 2 father and a mother who is a member of royal family

Title in Thai /phráʔ ʔoŋ câw/ 'son'
/phráʔ ʔoŋ câw yǐŋ/ 'daughter'

Status a Rank 4 member who is promoted to Rank 3

Title in Thai /phráʔ ʔoŋ câw/

4. Members and Titles of Rank 4

Status son or daughter of a father who is born as Rank 3 member

Title in Thai /môm câw/ 'son'
/môm câw yǐŋ/ 'daughter'

Status son or daughter of a Rank 3 father and a mother who is a commoner,

son or daughter of parents who are both members of Rank 4

Title in Cambodian //nsek ʔoŋ mcas//

5. Members and Titles of Rank 5

Status son or daughter of a father who is born as Rank 3 member

Title in Thai /môm râ:tchewoŋ/ 'son'
/môm râ:tchewoŋ yǐŋ/ 'daughter'

Status son or daughter of a Rank 4 father and a mother who is a commoner,

son or daughter of parents who are both members of Rank 5

Title in Cambodian //nsek ri:ec vuəŋ//

6. Members and Titles of Rank 6

Status son or daughter of a father who is born as Rank 5 member

Title in Thai /mòm lǔəŋ/ 'son'
/mòm lǔəŋ yǐŋ/ 'daughter'

Status son or daughter of a Rank 5 father and a mother who is a commoner

son or daughter of parents who are both members of Rank 6

Title in Cambodian //prəəh vuəŋ//

(K.557, Face Nord, L.2) (Coedès 1937, Vol.2, p.21)⁶³.

expanded forms are found on Thai inscriptions as early as the 13th century. In the inscription of King Rama Khamhaeng, dated 1283 A.D., there are as many as 46 elaborations of this type, not to mention other types of elaboration.

The examples given below are taken from Georges Coedès's 'Recueil des Inscriptions du Siam, première partie, Inscriptions de Sukhodaya', (Coedès 1924)⁵⁹. The transcription follows the one used in that book.

Thai Pattern L. 1 : C X C Y / C Y C X
 /khā⁺ (s)o'ak khā⁺ so'ā/ 'enemies'
 (enemy--*0)

(Line 31, side I)

/syañ bāt syañ bīn/ 'music'
 (sound--xylophone--sound--
 harp)

(Line 18, side II)

/syañ lo'ān⁺ syañ khapp/ 'singing sound'
 (sound--to sing--sound--to cite)

(Line 19, side 19)

Pattern L. 2 : W X W Y / W Y W X
 /dá pān⁺ dá mo'an/ 'to siege a town'
 (to attack--house--to attack
 --city)

(line 14, side I)

/mī thōy mī ⁺gvām/ 'to have a legal case'
 (to have--word--to have--
 legal case)

(Line 33, side I)

Pattern L.3 : B₁ B₂ Z Z

/cep dòn khòn ⁺cai/ 'to be ill, to have trouble'
 (to hurt--stomach--to doubt
 heart)

(Line 33-34, side I)

/lām ⁺tāy hāy kvā/ 'to die'
 (to fall--to die--to disappear
 --to go)

(Line 22, side I)

Some expanded forms are double quadruplets :

/cūañ vvva ⁺pai gā khī ⁺mā ⁺pai khāy/
 (to take--ox--to go--to trade--
 to ride--horse--to go--to sell)
 'to travel for business'

(Line 20, side I)

/nai ⁺nām(mī)plā nai nā mī khāu/
 (in--water--(to have)--fish--
 in--rice field--to have--rice)

'In the water there is fish, in the rice field there is rice.'

(Line 18-19, side I)

There are also double triplets :

/pá mī ⁺jāñ pá mī ⁺mā/
 (not--to have--elephant--not--to have--horse)
 'to have no animal.'

(Line 29, side I)

/pá mī p̄vǵá pá mī nāñ/

(not--to have--man-servant--not--to have--maid-servant)

'to have no servant'

(Line 29, side I)

/pá mī ño'(a)n pá mī dòñ/

(not--to have--silver--not--to have--gold)

'to have no treasure'

(Line 30, side I)

The Cambodian inscriptions deal with extremely simple and prosaic material, unlikely to produce an elaborated style of writing. Nevertheless, it does seem to the author that the almost total lack of reduplications, quadruplets and iteratives in Old Khmer contrasts markedly with the abundance of extended forms cited above from the earliest Thai inscription and would strongly suggest that the Thai language was the source of these features.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

-
1. LI, Fang-Kuei, 'A Tentative Classification of Tai Dialect, ' in Stanley Diamond, ed. Culture in History, New York, Columbia University Press, 1960.
 2. BROWN, J. Marvin, From Ancient Thai to Modern Dialects : A Theory, Bangkok, Social Science Association Press, 1965.
 3. JONES, Tobert B., 'Comparative Thai Studies : A Critique' in Ba Shin, Jean Boisselier, and A.B. Griswold, eds. Essays Offered to G.H. Luce (Artibus Asiae Supplementum XXIII, Vol. 1), Leiden, E.J.Brill, 1966.
 4. HAUDRICOURT, A.G., 'La place du Vietnamien dans les langues austro-asiatiques,' Bulletin de la Société Linguistique de Paris, 49, 1, 1953.
 5. COOKE, Joseph R., Pronominal Reference in Thai, Burmese and Vietnamese, University of California Press, 1968.
 6. MARTINI, Francois, 'Les expressions 'être' in Siamois et en Cambodgien,' Bulletin de la Société Linguistique de Paris, 52, 1956.
 7. MARTINI, Francois, 'La distinction du prédicat de qualité et de l'épithète en Cambodgien et en Siamois,' Bulletin de la Société Linguistique de Paris 53, 1957-1958.
 8. NACASKUL Karnchana, A Study of Cognate Words in Thai and Cambodian, unpublished M.A. Thesis, School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London, 1962.
 9. HUFFMAN, Franklin E., 'Thai and Cambodian - A Case of Syntactic Borrowing?' A paper presented to the 28th International Congress of Orientalists at Canberra, Australia, 1971.

10. HONEY, P.J., and SIMMONDS, E.H.S., 'Thai and Vietnamese : some elements of Nominal Structure Compounds,' in H.L. Shorto, ed. Linguistic Comparison in South East Asia and the Pacific, London, School of Oriental and African Studies 1963.
11. MARTINI, Francois, 'Tournures impersonnelles en Cambodgien et en Vietnamien,' Bulletin de la Société Linguistique de Paris, 54, 1959.
12. SHORTO, H.L., JACOB, J.M. and SIMMONDS, E.H.S., Bibliographies of Mon-Khmer and Tai Linguistics, London Oriental Bibliographies Vol. 2, London, Oxford University Press, 1963.
13. JACOB, Judith M., Cambodian Basic Course, London, Oxford University Press, 1968.
14. NOSS, Richard B., Cambodian Basic Course, Vol, one Washington, D.C., Foreign Service Institute, 1966.
15. NOSS, Richard B., Thai Reference Grammar, Washington D.C., Foreign Service Institute, 1964.
16. PANUPONG, Vichin, Inter-Sentence Relations in Modern Conversational Thai, Bangkok, Siam Society, 1970.
17. SMITH, Roger M., Cambodia's Foreign Policy, Ithaca, New York, Cornell University Press, 1965.
18. INSTITUTE BOUDDNIQUE, Vacananukram Khmer (Dictionnaire Cambodgien) Vols. 1-2, Phnom Penh, 1967.
19. ROYAL INSTITUTE, Photēhananukrom (Thai Dictionary) Bangkok, 1950.
20. BLOCH, Bernard and TRAGER George Leonard, Outline of linguistic Analysis, Special publications of the Linguistic Society of America, Baltimore, 1942.
21. FIRTH, John Rupert, Papers in Linguistics 1934-1951, London, Oxford University Press, 1957.

22. VARACHKRA RANARIDDHI, Samdach Preah Reach Ayyako, Tumniem kar phteal khluan 2nd edition, Phnom Penh, Institut Bonddhique, 1953.
23. SA-NGUAN ANKNONG, Rachasap Chabap Sombun, Bangkok, Samnak Phim Kawa, 1964.
24. UPAKIT SILPASARN, Phraya, Chumnum Nippon A.N.K., Bangkok 1953.
25. HUFFMAN, Franklin E., An Outline of Cambodian Grammar, Ph.D. Thesis, Cornell University, 1967.
26. JACOB, Judith M., 'Note on Numerals and Numeral Coefficients in Old, Middle and Modern Khmer' Lingna Vol. 15, 1965.
27. IM CHHOU DET, Bondol kon pa, Vols. 1-2, Phnom Penh, Bannakear Rasmiy Kampuchea, 1955.
28. INSTITUT BOUDDHIQUE, Prachum roeung preng Khmer, Vols 1-7, Phnom Penh, 1968.
29. KIY BENG CHHOUN, Troung anatha, Phnom Penh, Raung-pum Bayan, 1968.
30. HANGS THOUN HAK, Sambok et meba, Phnom Penh, Neak nipoun Khmer, 1965.
31. DHAMMA PALO KHIEV CHUM, Phikkhu, Kampuchveyyakar, Phnom Penh, Raung-pum Tara, 1962.
32. SOT SARUN, Maha sangkream neou Angkor, Phnom Penh, Raung-pum niyum, 1966-1967.
33. KUY LOT, Preah Bat Pnhea Yat, Phnom Penh, Raung-pum Viriyeah, 1966.
34. MAI MU'ANG DOEM, Chai sam bot, Bangkok, Sammak phim Bannakhan, 1968.

35. HAK CHHAY HOK, Ao! Phsaeng marana, Phnom Penh, Neak srei Kev Kin, 1968.
36. SUWANNI SUKHONTHA, Ruam ru'ang san, Bangkok, Su'ksit Siam, 1968.
37. W.Na PRAMUANMARK, Nik kap Phim, Bangkok, Samnak phim Prae Phitthaya, 1962.
38. LIY THEAM TENG, Aksarasastr Khmer, Phnom Penh, Bannakear Seng nguan huat, 1960.
39. BHANDHUMEDHA, Nawawan, The Structure of the Nucleus , A Verb Phrase Constituent, unpublished M.A.thesis, Chulalongkorn University, 1967.
40. FASOLD, Talph William August, Noun Compounding in Thai, Arlington, Virginia, 1969.
41. UDOMPHOL, Nisa, Compounds in Thai, un published M.Ed. dissertation, Chulalongkorn University, 1964.
42. PRACH SENG, Phleng kar prakar duong cett, Phnom Penh, Bannakear Seng nguan huat, 1965.
43. SRI BURAPHA, Luk phu chai Bangkok, Phadung Su'ksa, 1967.
44. SNAENAREATH, 'Kal lbet rabos yuan kommunist' in Neak Cheat Niyum, Phnom Penh, 3 May 1970.
45. HNOK THAEM, Kolap Bailin, Phnom Penh, 1936.
46. PRAYUT SITTHIPHAN, Rak nai ratchasamnak, Bangkok, Khlang Vidhaya, 1966
47. S. Ph. Th., Paks champa khmav, Phnom Penh Krom sarpotomean meatophoum, no date.
48. SOTH POLIN, Civit et ney, Phnom Penh, no date.

49. KHU'KRIT PRAMOJ and others, Chan rak ru'du røn, Bangkok, Samnak phim Kawna, 1960.
50. YUEN REN CHAO, A Grammar of Spoken Chinese, California, Stanford University Press, 1968.
51. HENDERSON, Eugénie J.A., 'The main features of Cambodian pronunciation,' Bulletin of the School of Oriental and African Studies, Vol.XIV, Part 1, 1952.
52. PINNOW, Heinz-Jürgen, 'Historical Considerations Having a Bearing on the Phonetic Structure of Khmer,' translated from 'Sprachgeschichtliche Erwägungen zum Phonemsystem des Khmer,' in Zeitschrift für Phonetik und allgemeine Sprachwissenschaft, 10, 1957.
53. ANUMAN RAJADHON, Phraya, Niruktisat, Vols.1-2, Bangkok, Rong phim Rung-ru'ang Dharm, 1956.
54. HASS, Mary R., Thai-English Student Dictionary, Stanford, Stanford University Press, 1963.
55. OKELL, John, A Reference Grammar of Colloquial Burmese I, London, Oxford University Press, 1969.
56. TRUONG VAN CHINH, Structure de la Langue Vietnamiennne, Paris, Geushner, 1970.
57. AYE, Khin Khin, Repetitive Forms in Burmese, unpublished M.A. thesis, School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London, 1965.
58. ADAM, Tassilo and BUTLER, James P., Grammar of the Malay Language, New York, Hafner Publishing Company, 1948.
59. COEDÈS, Georges, Recueil des Inscriptions du Siam Première partie: Inscriptions de Sukhodaya, Bangkok, Bangkok Times Press, 1924.

60. COEDÈS, Georges, The Making of Cambodia, London, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1966, translated from Les peuples de la péninsule indochinoise, Paris, Dunod, 1962.
61. ROYAL INSTITUTE, Khwam-ru thang aksorasat, Bangkok, Rong phim Phra-čhan, 1965.
62. BITARD, Pierre, 'Les membres de la famille royale du Cambodge et leurs titres d'après l'ordonnance de S.M.Añ Duoñ,' Bulletin de l'Ecole Francaise d'Extrême -Orient, Tome 48, Fasc. 2, 1957.
63. COEDES, Georges, Inscriptions du Cambodge, Hanoi, Imprimerie d'Extrême-Orient, 1937.
64. SAMNAK NAYOK-RATTHAMONTRI, Prachum sila čharu'k phak thi sam, Bangkok, Samnak Nayok-Ratthamontri, 1965.